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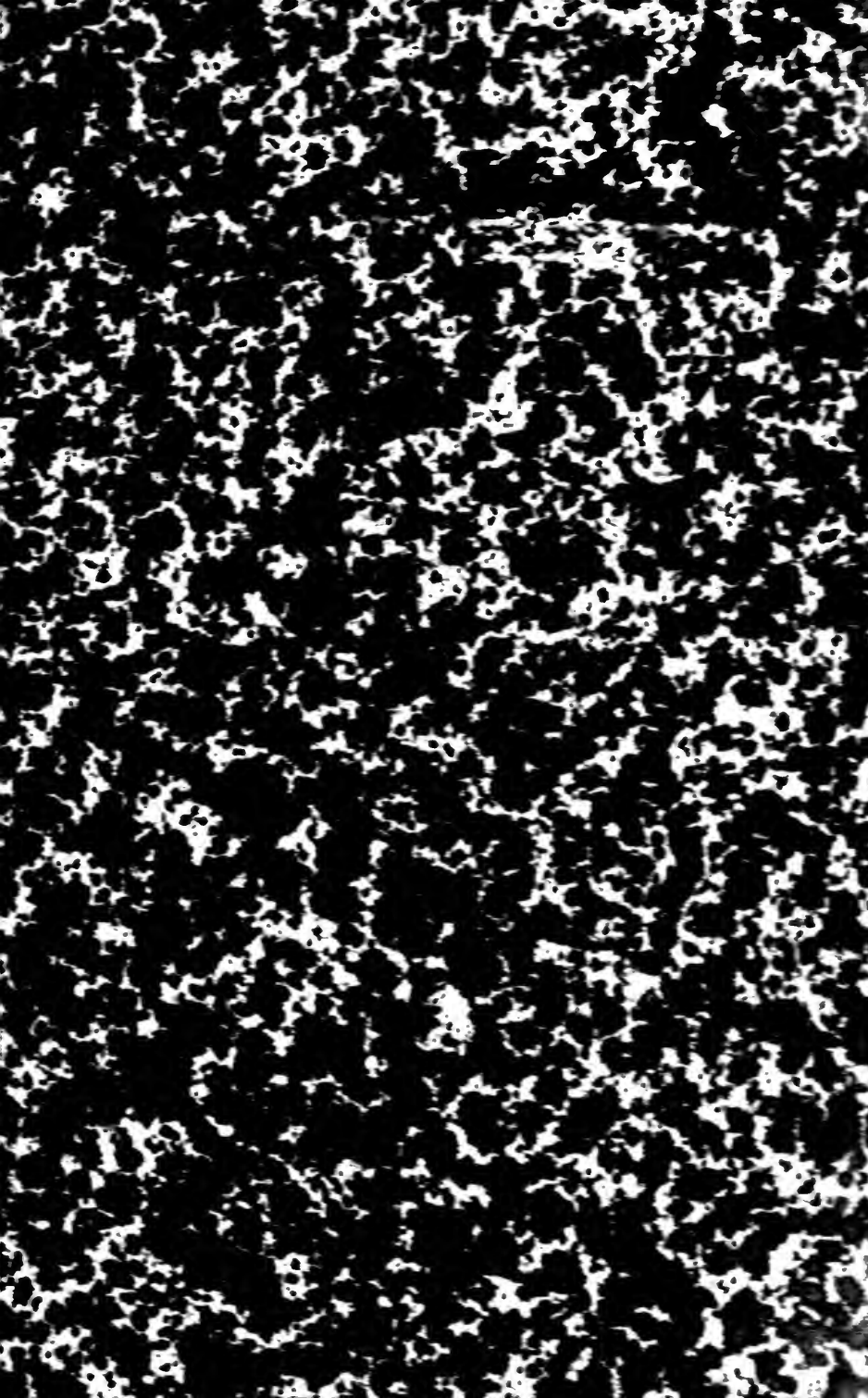
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ILLINOIS HISTORICAL SURVEY



VOLUME VII.—1861.

THE

ILLINOIS TEACHER:

DEVOTED TO

Education, Science, and Free Schools.

DR. SAMUEL WILLARD, - - EDITOR.

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PEORIA, ILLINOIS :

N. C. NASON, PUBLISHER, 32 FULTON STREET.

1861.

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ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

JANUARY, 1861.

NUMBER 1.

ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING.

REPORTED BY DR. SAMUEL WILLARD, EDITOR.

THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION met at Concert Hall in Quincy, on Wednesday, Dec. 26th, 1860, at 10 o'clock A.M., and was called to order by the President, Prof. J. V. N. STANDISH, of Galesburg.

Prayer was offered by Rev. J. S. POAGE, of Aledo.

The Secretary, Mr. W. WOODARD, of Chicago, not having arrived, Mr. SAMUEL A. BRIGGS, of Beardstown, was chosen temporary Secretary.

The President then read the following address.

PRESIDENT STANDISH'S ADDRESS.

TEACHERS OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS,—

CO-LABORERS IN THE GREAT WORK OF EDUCATION:—

Ladies and Gentlemen: Another year, laden with its cares and its trials, has completed its annual round since last we met. A kind and ever-watchful Providence has been over us, to preserve and keep us from dangers that beset our pathway, and to crown our efforts with richest blessings. At this time, therefore, amid scenes of prosperity and health, we would not fail to acknowledge the Divine Goodness as the Author of our existence and the Director of all our steps.

It is pleasant to me, on this anniversary occasion, to greet this brilliant company of teachers and friends of education. It is no ordinary holiday that has brought us together at this time. No Olympic con-

tests for palms of victory, no Saturnalian festivities, have summoned us hither. We have not come here for trials of strength; nor is it a pilgrimage to the HOLY CITY for the absolution of our sins. Nor can it be justly charged upon us that place, profit, or power, is our only ambition. Unasked, unsought, these shall follow us, rather than we shall pursue them. Educators remarkable for their literary attainments, men of scholarly bearing and profound erudition, *may* have deserved and obtained a place in a nation's history; while thousands upon thousands, whose praise is embalmed in their noble deeds, have passed from the stage of action *unnoticed*. No: if a maudlin desire for wealth and power should move the heart of any one to seek them through the teacher's profession, his sanity would certainly be questioned. This Moloch of ambition seeks not the offering of the patriot scholar or of the philanthropist, but is satiated by the oblations of those who seek honor and renown in the arena of politics, or amid the carnage of the battle-field. A broad highway is open to all who seek a *name*. Parliaments and Congresses meet, and dispose of the affairs of state and of nations as easily as the pretorian guards disposed of the Roman world. And why this difference? The answer is obvious:

"The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interréd with their bones."

If the interests we represent are not fraught with such momentous consequences, I trust no one will be found to declare them of less importance to the prosperity and welfare of the State. The meed of praise without stint shall be accorded to those whose duty it is to turn souls to righteousness, and to other professions; but for our own, considering its influences and results, we claim a position *second to none*.

It has been said, by those whose opinions are good in the premises, that he is a public benefactor who causes two spears of grass to grow where one grew before. How much more, then, is he entitled to our love and admiration who cultivates the garden of the soul, and rears the tender thought in the youthful mind! Much depends upon the early and systematic training of the young. Let but the spring-time of life pass unimproved, an injury is done not easily repaired—the perfect symmetry of the future man is marred. The more thorough a man's education is, the stronger the desire to accomplish grander results by greater achievements. Let the secret powers of the soul be educated and brought out, and man becomes a better and happier man. He will be a better citizen, better neighbor and friend. An ancient philosopher was once asked, What is the difference between an educated and an uneducated man? "Send them forth into the world," said he, "and you will soon perceive the difference."

It has been said that this age is a *practical* one. That it is eminently so no one will deny. The times seem to be *restless* and *feverish*. 'Young America', all aglow with enthusiasm, impatient, has long since exchanged his swaddling-clothes for the habiliments of manhood. The precocious youth really wonders what older people were made for. He is almost disheartened that this busy, bustling world gets on no faster. At his meals he is importunate for *immediate* service, and can hardly wait for that. In his sleep he is tossed by wild, distracting dreams, such only as fancy pictures before the restless spirit. The times seem to make us what we are; for who would be a pagan 'suckled in a creed outgrown'?

Eminently this is a *fast* age. Every thing seems to be done in a hurry. What kings, philosophers and sages have long desired to see has dawned upon us. The 'royal road' to Geometry is now open; and the dull genius, ere the plodding conservative shall have started on his course, will have reached the destined goal. The good old way is forgotten, and thousands would have us believe that the laws of mind are changed to meet the demands of the age. Our children are *not* to be *educated*,—much less *governed*. The necessities of the case do not demand it. In far too many instances, without exertion or effort, they stand as vast reservoirs to receive what is given them. The dome of the head is *lifted up*, and the principles of Arithmetic and Grammar are dropped in, like potatoes into an empty barrel. Not unfrequently, he is accounted the best teacher who makes the most bluster on examination-days and all other days. On the former occasions he summons forth his *abused charge* to show to the *abused* patrons *what they do not know*. And should the next winter's teacher be so unfortunate as not to advance his pupils in the text-book as far as they went the winter before, his employers soon dismiss him, and he is pronounced, both by patron and pupil, an inferior teacher.

I have said that this age is a *practical* one. Every thing, whether it pertains to theology, law, or physics, must square itself by this unbending rule, Will it pay? There seem to be as many discrepancies in the judgments of men in regard to *what* is truly practical as would characterize their opinions of the stature, complexion, and employment, of the inhabitants of the moon.

In education, what, then, is practical? Take one stand-point, and we are compelled to say nothing is practical save a man's sleep and his dinner. In regard to these we all agree; but when we transcend this limit we shall differ. I once saw a man who declared that it was useless, and worse than useless, to learn how to read; that he did not know one letter from another, and in a pecuniary point of view he

had been successful through life; that he did not wish his children to attend school, for they could learn from others all that would be necessary for them to know. In literary pursuits, that is truly practical which the innate susceptibility and constitution of the mind have power to render practical. In its widest acceptation, that is practical which will develop the hidden powers of the soul, and bring out the man to the perfect stature of true manhood. Some one has said that a person is not truly educated until he or she shall catch the charm that makes a gentleman or lady. I would say the true man or woman — the noblest names given under heaven — must ever be regarded as the *truly* educated. When man is truly man, and woman is truly woman, then, and not till then, are they fitted for the higher duties and responsibilities of life. It is well to instruct our youth in the rules of grammar and arithmetic; but how much better is it to teach them *manners* enough to go into a neighbor's parlor and out again. It is worth all the grammar and arithmetic in the world.

“What boots it, thy virtue,
What profit thy parts,
While one thing thou lackest,—
The art of all arts?
The only credentials,
Passport to success;
Open castle and parlor,—
Address, man, Address.”

As educators, we are advancing too rapidly. *We must make haste slower.* We must strive to roll back this impetuous tide which threatens to sap the very foundation of our educational system. Our colleges, academies, and public schools, are true types of the spirit of the age. Our students, snuffing the popular breeze, *can not wait to be scholars.* High on the brow of too many of our would-be scholars you can trace this significant inscription, ‘not transferable’; ‘good for this trip only’. Our young men are not willing to tarry at Jericho until their beards be grown, but are pressing on to the Holy City. To their minds, Jerusalem is the *place* where men ought to worship.

Notwithstanding all that has been said in regard to what might be properly called defects in our educational system, yet there is much to encourage us. In the entire State we have from 10,000 to 12,000 public schools, many of them in a flourishing condition. We have, in addition, 20 colleges, 50 academies and seminaries, besides a few private schools. Colleges may be said to stand at the head of a perfect system of graded schools. As the colleges of a state or nation, so are her public schools; as are her public schools, so are her colleges

and universities. If you degrade the *one*, so you will degrade the *other*; elevate the *one*, and, in the same ratio, you will affect the *other*.

Last of all, but *first* in importance, I would mention with pride our Normal University. Although she is a young child, fostered and cherished by such noble spirits as now compose our State Board of Education, and a few other worthy men, whose names can be spoken only with praise, yet we feel that she has all the strength and maturity of manhood. Many, many thanks are due these men for the sacrifices they have made. True and noble teachers, all over the State, are worthy of high honors. Their works testify of them.

Our educational journals, our teachers' institutes, will compare favorably with those of older States. All the parts of a complete system are here: it only remains for us to adjust them.

It is a proposition I think no one will question, that every person, in whatever laudable occupation employed, should receive a fair compensation for his services. An estimate has been made that clergymen throughout the United States receive less than \$250 annually. In New England—in Puritan New England—many a country minister is driven to perform secular as well as pastoral labor. In many cases their salaries will not exceed the yearly wages of the common wood-sawyer. I once knew of a clergyman, of the first order of talent, who preached three months for the remarkable sum of eighty dollars. Even now I can point you to an example where one of the most talented divines in America has passed beyond the circle of his own congregation for the means of support.

That our teachers, East and West, North and South, are poorly paid, I am bold to declare. Poor, miserable pedagogues—as they are often called by those whose sympathy is less enlisted than their contempt—are obliged to eke out a stinted subsistence at the tune of one to three hundred dollars a year. The monthly compensation paid to male teachers in this State, in 1858, was \$29 and 66 cents; while female teachers received only \$19 and 48 cents per month. In the same report, I observe that the lowest compensation for male teachers is \$9 per month: the lowest compensation of female teachers is \$3 per month. In the former cases, teachers boarded themselves; in the latter, *probably* they 'went boarding round'.

It is a proposition that needs no demonstration, that it costs as much to educate, to clothe a woman, that she may appear respectably in society, as it does a man. Now, why are the wages of male teachers so much higher than the wages of female teachers? When female teachers do the *same* work and do it as well as male teachers, why should they not receive a just recompense? I have known many dis-

tricts where the ability of certain female teachers to instruct and to govern was acknowledged ; and yet, their compensation is reduced nearly one-half, just because *they are females*. Were female teachers to depend wholly upon themselves for the means of subsistence, were they to engage in teaching for a livelihood, the necessities of the case would compel them to drag out a weary life in abject poverty. There is no alternative. Perhaps there is a single exception. It is to those who are *so* fortunate or unfortunate, as the case may be, as 'to settle' in life. This may ameliorate the condition of the *many*, but it meets not the demands of justice to the *few*.

Now let us take a retrospective view of the Past, that we may see what reasons we have to inspire us with bright hopes for the Future. When we consider the condition of the schools as they were only five years ago, we, the teachers of Illinois, have every reason to bless God and take courage. Many of you, no doubt, are toiling under very discouraging circumstances—almost against hope. Some of you may be in localities where the wants of the school and school-room are wholly disregarded. Worst of all, you may be in districts where your labors and efforts are poorly appreciated—perhaps not at all.

My brother and sister in the profession, *one and all*, if your lot, humble though it be, has been cast with those who love their horse better than their child, who have more regard for the wants of the pig-sty than the wants of the school-room, do not be discouraged, but toil on. You shall reap if you faint not. The soul must be educated in order to appreciate. Whatever task you have to perform, do it with a *will to do*, and by Him who knoweth the secrets of the heart and trieth the reins you will not be unrewarded. You are the almoners of the gifts of God to generations yet unborn. The golden key of promise, which unlocks the palace wherein dwell the Goddesses of science, literature, and art, is committed into your hands. The influence of your good examples will never be lost. The silent tuition of your own looks to-day may set in motion a train of causes which will revolutionize the world. Who can tell the results of a single thought—a single act? "Our deeds our angels are." Honor, then, your position, rather than your position should honor you ; for it is far better to have your place unworthy of you than to be unworthy of your place. Let the sluggard and slothful 'luxuriate in siestas' ; bear ye the heat and burden of the day. Honest in a sacred cause, honest with yourselves, you will rear monuments that will outlive the pyramids. In whatever you do, then, be instant in season, that your good may not be evil spoken of. Finally, let not the sun go down with a duty unperformed. Let no unrighteous act provoke the world's cen-

sure and deprive you of your happiness. Love the right, and fear not to pursue it.

“ So live, that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan that moves
To the pale realms of shade, where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not like the quarry-slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon ; but, sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams.”

Mr. E. L. CLARK, who had been appointed on the Committee on Programme in place of Mr. Cutcheon, and who was the only member of the Committee present, presented the Programme of the Committee, which was accepted and adopted.

PROGRAMME OF EXERCISES:

WEDNESDAY, 10 o'clock A.M.—Opening Exercises; President's Address; Report of Committee on Programme; Report of Finance Committee; Business, or Discussion. 1½ o'clock P.M.—Essay by H. Freeman, of Rockford: subject, 'The Teacher'. 2 o'clock.—Report of Committee on County Institutes, followed by discussion. 3 o'clock.—Essay by Miss Agnes Manning, of Chicago. 3½ o'clock.—Address by C. M. Cady, of Chicago, on the subject of 'Vocal Music', followed by a drill exercise illustrating his method of teaching the same in the common school. 7 o'clock.—Lecture by Prof. A. S. Welch, Principal of the Michigan State Normal School, on 'The Natural System of Education'.

THURSDAY, 9 A.M.—Address by Rev. Z. M. Humphrey, of Chicago: subject, 'Americanisms'. 10 o'clock.—Essay by A. M. Gow, of Dixon, on 'Natural History as a subject of study in our Schools'; Election of Officers and other business; Discussion. 11½ o'clock.—Rev. L. P. Clover, of Springfield, will present the subject of 'Drawing as Connected with the Common and Higher Pursuits of Life'. 1½ o'clock P.M.—Address by Prof. J. G. Hoyt, Chancellor of Washington University, St. Louis: subject, 'Popular Fallacies'; Discussion. 3 o'clock.—Essay by W. W. Davis, of Sterling, on 'The Claims of History in the Common School'; Musical Drill, conducted by C. M. Cady. 7 o'clock.—Lecture by Hon. J. M. Gregory, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Michigan, on 'Education the Business of Life'.

FRIDAY, 9 o'clock A.M.—Address by C. E. Hovey, Principal of Illinois State Normal University, followed by discussion. 10½ o'clock.—Lecture by Rev. J. S. Poage, of Aledo: subject, 'Moral Courage an element of Character essential to the Scholar'; Unfinished Business; Resolutions, etc.

Mr. J. G. MARCHANT, of Quincy, was appointed Treasurer *pro tem.*, and a recess of ten minutes was given to allow those present to become members by payment of the admission fee.

Mr. TRUESDEL moved that a committee of three be appointed to perfect arrangements for return tickets.

Mr. BRIGGS moved to amend by substituting for 'a committee of three' the words 'Railroad Secretary': and the amendment being accepted, the resolution was adopted.

Mr. GEO. LONG, of Quincy, was appointed such assistant Secretary.

Mr. BLODGETT moved that the President be empowered to appoint a committee to nominate officers, the committee to report to-morrow morning; and the motion prevailed.

On motion of Dr. WILLARD, it was ordered that the Treasurer take names of ladies wishing to become members of the Association.

The Association then adjourned till 2 P.M.

Two o'clock.

The Association resumed its business: Mr. Woodard, the Secretary, taking his place.

A dispatch from Prof. C. M. Cady was read, stating that on account of sickness in his family he could not attend the meeting of the Association and fulfill his appointment.

Other appointments having been called without response, a recess was given of ten minutes, after which

An Essay, by Miss Agnes Manning, of Chicago, was read by Mr. S. A. Briggs. The essay was entitled 'Primary Teaching'. [This essay will hereafter appear in the *Illinois Teacher*.]

Mr. STONE moved that the Report on Teachers' Institutes be called for; and it was so ordered.

Mr. WELLS, the only member of the Committee present, answered that the matter had been left entirely to the Chairman of the Committee, Mr. Hovey, who had not called the committee together, and he had no report to present. Upon the general subject he had no doubt of the importance of the local institutes as a means of improvement to the teachers: they are temporary Normal Schools; and the same reasons commend and urge them that have urged the establishment of a State School for Teachers. No appropriation for schools could be made by the Legislature which would produce better effect upon the school system. The plan of such meetings originated little less than thirty years ago at Hartford, with Hon. Henry Barnard, and has been extended to wider fields and with increasing usefulness. We need not hesitate to ask the Legislature for appropriations from any doubt as to the importance of the matter proposed. As the law now stands, indeed, help may be given by the county authorities, as has frequently been done.

Mr. EBERHART suggested that the subject may come up again in

the matters which Hon. Mr. Bateman, the State Superintendent, is to present, and moved that it be laid on the table for the present; and it was so ordered.

Mr. STONE moved to take up for discussion the question, 'Does purely intellectual culture tend to favor good morals?'

Mr. GOW.—Unless we can say or do something to make us better and wiser, we might as well go home: better go and study the rocks and the trees than to deal with useless abstractions.

Mr. STONE urged the practical character of the question, and went on to argue the question itself at considerable length.

Mr. GOW urged that we ought to take a subject relating to practical affairs, and not a mere abstraction; a report of a debate on such a question will make people think that we in the West have just waked up: the question has been decided long ago by universal consent.

Mr. ROLFE denied that it is a settled question; but urged that it is impossible to cultivate the intellectual nature without training also the moral nature.

Mr. HASKELL moved to lay the subject upon the table; and it was so ordered.

Mr. BLODGETT proposed the following question, which was taken up: "Do the frequent changes in our Union Schools indicate that the graded system, as now organized, is one which the people are willing to sustain?"

Mr. HASKELL asked that persons speaking should give their own knowledge and experience respecting the actual working of the system of graded schools. Public opinion is divided. Some still urge that private or parochial schools or academies are preferable to the graded system.

Mr. GOW.—Some men of experience have said that it must be a failure, for the reason that the people and the teachers are not educated sufficiently to manage such a system. An objector spoke to him of the course and event of the Lancasterian or monitorial system, in which a few teachers with monitors from the higher classes taught large schools. Under Lancaster's own management they did well; but when he died they soon went down. Mr. Powell, in his report for 1858, urged the graded school as a panacea, almost. But suppose the experiment begun. A house is put up by one who knows not how to build a house for educational purposes, and which interposes obstacles in practical teaching. Next, a man with a diploma is set to teach, his diploma being his only testimonial of ability. Teachers are brought in who are unused to the system and to mutual coöperation, and who are often even unused to teaching at all, but have academic education, and, like the principal supposed, little experience or

tact. Now the student from college is not practically skilled in teaching; and under the difficulties of untrained teachers, turbulent pupils, and outside interferences, the scheme fails and is cursed, for the incompetence of its managers. He was told that in Ohio serious difficulties had been experienced: in one school there had been seven principals in five years. He hoped Mr. Welch would favor the meeting with his experience and his thoughts.

Mr. WELCH (of Michigan Normal School).—I have strong faith in Union Schools. My experience has been fortunate, and my observation leads me to put faith in them. I know they require a complicated organization, and teachers of great power: men of steadiness of will and clearness of mind, as well as of scholarship. Mr. Welch then specified schools in Michigan of the permanence of which he was entirely satisfied; the people supported and honored them, and they rarely change teachers. The schools may fall into bad hands occasionally, but they soon get new heads. The teacher must be able to educate the people as well as the scholars; he must be one who can govern his Board of Education as well as himself. Such men can be found: our Normal Schools should and will furnish them, and their course of study should take the union schools into view as it does the primary schools.

Mr. WELLS.—I am surprised to hear that there are such doubts about the success of graded schools: such objections are generally made only against the special management of them, and not against the system. This system is not to be compared with the Lancasterian system: you might as well talk of making apprentices direct the work of their fellows. The essential element of the Lancasterian system is the use of scholars as teachers; and if it fails it does not show that trained teachers might not act under a common head. The theory of the Union-school system is not to be impeached, and practically it works well. A graded school is but a classified school which economizes the work of the teachers. It is like the classing of pupils in a common school, who are never taught separately. In the cities of St. Louis, Cincinnati, and elsewhere, you might as well propose to hold schools in the night as to give up the graded system. Small communities can not adopt it, as there must be numbers sufficient for classification.

Mr. GOW.—I am misapprehended: I agree with all the points that have been made by these gentlemen. I think the graded-school system the very crown of our school system. I was but presenting what others have said. The Lancasterian system was considered a decided success, and men who believed in it laid out much time and money to

introduce it. But the system was defective, as the event showed. Now in St. Louis and the other cities named there are advantages not to be had in the smaller towns. We must consider the difficulties as they there occur. Do we find the excellent organizing teachers there? Do we find the trained assistants? Why, the principal has not even the choice of his assistants. Mr. A., one of the directors, has a sweet-tempered daughter, a delightful little smiling know-nothing, who must have the primary department; Mr. B.'s daughter must go in for some other equally cogent reason, and so the whole scheme and system is without unity, beauty, or strength.

Mr. WELLS.—Failures from such causes are not due to the system; even under such difficulties, it is still better than a system without classification.

Mr. BLODGETT.—People do not know what a graded school is, nor what the Union-school system is. In one town in Illinois, the directors graded by size of pupils; that failing, the next experiment was to grade by families; and finally they graded by territory! A great *Union school* in a single building, where each teacher is independent, each having all the pupils from a certain assigned part of the town! Mr. B. gave other instances of schools called graded, which were without true organization. People need to know what the system really is. The frequent changes of teachers indicate the ill success of the current attempts to put it in practice.

Mr. EBERHART.—I am surprised to hear such an account of our schools in the north of the State. I am not acquainted with any instance of the failure of a Union school which has resulted in going back to the old system. The people every where like it as soon as they see it in operation. The changes generally arise from want of faculty on the part of the teacher, except in cases where teachers have themselves chosen to leave to get better places. Is there a place where the system has been tried and abandoned? And where do they grade by size? Do tell us where is that place? I am anxious to know.

Mr. STONE brought up the question of intellectual and moral education again, and moved to lay the question now under discussion on the table, but finally withdrew the motion.

Mr. BLODGETT.—The places that are complaining of the working of these imperfect experiments do not propose to go back to the old scheme, but go on to something else, wandering in the dark.

Mr. ROLFE denied that there were complaints of the system in Ohio to any extent, as had been reported.

Mr. ETTER.—Directors often do not know what they want. In one case I prevailed upon a board to send one of their number to see

schools properly organized, that they might know how to organize their own. Success requires previous knowledge both on the part of directors and teachers: those who will succeed must take pains to visit other schools until they appreciate the methods in use. In my own county (Henry) the system is popular and firmly seated.

MR. SPRINGSTEAD bore testimony to the success of the system within his knowledge.

The Association then adjourned till 7 P.M., a lecture from Mr. Welch, of the Michigan Normal School, being announced as the first thing in order.

SEVEN O'CLOCK.

Immediately after the opening of the evening session, the President introduced Prof. A. S. WELCH, Principal of the Michigan State Normal School, who delivered an address upon 'The Natural System of Education'.

[We expect to give the lecture hereafter in full. To explain what follows, we must say that Mr. Welch urged for early training of pupils 'object lessons', cultivating the senses especially of hearing and sight; that he considered grammar, arithmetic, and geography, to be abstract studies, that should be postponed to the reflective period of development; that he commented especially upon grammar, and said that at the age of eight he had learned Murray's Abridgment entire, without understanding any thing in it.]

Mr. WELLS proposed that a discussion be had on the subject; which being agreed to, he proceeded to speak upon it: I think the discussion timely. The most practical thing for a teacher is such knowledge of the nature of mind as will aid him in his school-room. There is a science in education. The great law is that the mind must be trained by its own efforts, and not by what is done for it. Progress any where is based on science, whether it be to make grass grow higher, oxen fatter, or children wiser. I have heard teachers doubt whether there is a natural order of studies. I should like to have such persons hear such a lecture. It is said that the profession is crowded: it is not crowded with those who can so analyze mind as to train MEN from *children*: who can train an infant Newton into a great philosopher. The work of such a teacher when nobly done is work as near that of the Eternal and Infinite Mind as mortal man is allowed to attempt.

MR. SPRINGSTEAD.—The lecture has opened a wide field for thought. The contrasts between the natural method of instruction and the methods of the school-room are not favorable to us.

MR. CHILDS.—What can be done? Not any thing great at once. We must begin little by little. When we begin such object lessons, we are

asked by wondering spectators what we are doing. I have this winter let the children select their own objects very often, and find them much interested. We can not make great changes at once in this direction.

Mr. PARKER.—I do not understand one thing said about memory by the lecturer. I think mathematics should be taught late: I think Mr. Page, former head of New-York State Normal School, would have it brought in early; but I agree with the speaker. But children have tenacious memories, and early recollections are most vivid: may they not be getting, even in memorizing what they do not understand, lessons that will be of great use afterward? The speaker spoke of learning Murray's Grammar without understanding it; but is not that the reason of his proficiency in that branch in later days? Did not what he had stored in his memory come to his aid as a possession secured when memory was most receptive, and held for future benefit?

Mr. BLODGETT.—One of the principals of one of our leading schools in the State said to me, "We are not ready for object lessons yet." He felt the need shown here, but also knew that neither the teachers nor the people are ready. We need such lectures, and should spread such thoughts with all our power, helping each other to deepen the impression! The books needed by teachers are not to be had except by importing them at great cost. Barnard's Journal has many valuable papers on these object-lessons, but few copies are taken in Illinois.

Mr. GOW moved that Mr. Welch be requested to furnish a copy of his lecture to the Association for publication in the *Illinois Teacher*; which was unanimously agreed to.

Mr. WELCH (in answer to Mr. Parker).—We do cultivate the memory in all our teaching, and should do so in the course proposed, in the object lessons: valuable knowledge is stored in the memory for future use in the best way, being understood as far as possible all the time. As to the grammar, I think it never helped me; we can not indeed always measure the influences that have affected us; but such is my firm conviction. I certainly had much to unlearn. I then learned that 'prepositions govern the objective case': I afterward had to learn the fact that they never govern any thing at all, and that the objective case (if we have any objective case, which I doubt) governs the preposition. I was taught that 'the nominative case governs the verb'. I find that it does so in one case out of thirty-six, and in the other thirty-five the statement is untrue. I was made to commit the forms of a potential mode; I find no such thing in the language. Such was the help that I got from my study of Murray's Grammar. In another study I acquired a permanent misconception. When studying geography, I happened, at the time when my earliest conceptions

of the location of the north and the south poles were formed, to be sitting with my face toward the South, and my map in a direction the reverse of the true one; and that misconception pursues me to this day. True, I can rectify it, but it always requires a distinct effort. And with the terms north pole and south pole there always now comes to my mind the image of an actual protrusion of poles. We do not aid our pupils by giving them lasting misconceptions to be stored up: we do but make blockheads; incorrigible blockheads.

Mr. HEWETT.—The learning of formulas, scientific formulas and rules, is urged by some, without reference to any conception or understanding on the part of the pupil; thus it used to be said in New England as a reason for committing the catechism, that it is good and would become useful: has the reason any force?

Mr. WELCH.—The method is not natural, and is, I am sure, practically injurious.

Mr. WELLS.—I have often heard Horace Mann in his lectures and lessons before teachers' institutes impress the thought that you should never teach any thing unless you give ideas with the words; and on this point of grammar he used to say that more than one-half of the time spent upon it was wasted and worse than wasted.

Mr. ROLFE.—My observations for some years have convinced me of the truth of what the lecturer said about geography: it is generally in our schools only a matter of rote recitation.

Mr. ETHERIDGE.—The lecturer has suggested means of removing some of the great difficulties in the way of interesting the people in the cause of education: they say and feel that it is not practical. I know a farmer who has given great attention to the raising of colts, and who has very fine ones: he also has a large family of boys: he says his colts are developed, but his boys are not: he has lived among schools, but they have not helped him: he is tired of raising boys, and prefers colts. He follows the natural method: the teacher in school does not.

Dr. WILLARD.—In studying books we do not study things, but only what men have written about things; it is a true economy to study directly the things themselves. So I find that I have wasted much time. I spent some years in a very laborious profession, and always found that I had to relearn in practice what I had got from my books in words.

Mr. PARKER.—My old preceptor, Mr. Welch, used to tell us to take lessons from nature, recur to nature. Have we not a lesson here? The corn-stalk draws up juice from the soil which for a long time it does not convert into grain; finally it forms from it the kernels: it is

so with all fruits: the sap is held in the plant long before it is turned into the fruit: is not this, then, nature's method—acquire and afterward use?

MR. ETHERIDGE.—That is a good illustration of the old system of education: it serves to fill the head with *sap*. [Laughter.]

MR. HASKELL.—The subject seems nearly used up, but there is in it more than one evening's work. But suppose we try to introduce the ideas of this lecture and of this discussion among the people: in the first place we need better teachers for the primary schools. We know that the very best teachers are really needed to train and educate the little fellows who are to be the big fellows by-and-by; and the best teachers should have the highest wages. Now try to persuade the people of this fact and induce them to pay accordingly: will they do it? No: you would raise a revolution: they would secede from you, or rather make you secede. You can not convince directors or people that their best teachers must teach the smallest pupils.—Mr. Haskell gave a lively sketch of a visit to a school, and of the scene that he saw, the teacher giving a lesson in the alphabet; and of his suggestion to the teacher of the word-method, with an illustration on the spot. “Now,” said Mr. Haskell, “how many of us are ready to go home and try to introduce a new system? We praise the lecture, but dare not act upon its teaching.” But can we ourselves give such lessons? can we take up a piece of coral, a scrap of paper, a leaf, a stick, a pebble, and use it for the text of a lesson? We must first educate ourselves into greater powers, and turn public opinion by degrees. As things are, old-fogy directors would soon turn us aside and set us adrift. Let us seek to enforce the point that attainments of the highest practical value are needed for primary teachers: teachers who will banish these rote-lessons repeated with no ideas. But directors and people will take *cheap* teachers.

MR. CHENEY.—The directors are not all old fogies. In a recent number of the *Teacher* mention was made of Syracuse, N.Y., and of the fact that the best teachers there are put into the primary schools. This plan was adopted there about four years ago, upon the recommendation of a citizen who had been head of a Normal School in Massachusetts. It has now spread from that city into and through the whole county. I tried lately to get some teachers from that region for our own schools, and I could not do it: not even from a little seven-by-nine country school-house: the teachers would not take the post of first-assistant with us, being better paid there. Directors will act upon what they know, and seek to form their schools by the

best that was in vogue when they went to school, until you can prove to them that something else is better.

Mr. ETTER moved the appointment of a committee of three upon resolutions; which was agreed to. Messrs. Wells, Haskell and Hewett were appointed.

Mr. ETTER stated that Mr. Haskell had here the plans of an excellent school-house; and he moved that they be referred to a committee. The motion prevailed, and Messrs. A. M. Gow, Wells and Cheney were appointed.

The Committee on Programme reported by Mr. Clark a change of arrangement for the morning, Rev. Mr. Humphrey having telegraphed that a change in the time-tables of the railroad had occasioned his being left in Chicago. The plan of the committee was adopted, giving Mr. Bateman and Mr. Clover the first hours of the session, and requiring it to open at 8.30 A.M.

Mr. STONE moved that the final adjournment of the Association be fixed to take place at the close of the session of Thursday evening. The matter was discussed for some time, and finally the motion was withdrawn. [The reason of the proposition was the fact that many members could not get home before Sunday if they should remain over 10.45 Friday morning.]

Mr. EBERHART announced a meeting of School Commissioners and Superintendents of Schools to occur at 8 o'clock in the morning.

A motion to adjourn till 8.30 to-morrow morning now prevailed.

THURSDAY MORNING, DECEMBER 27.

The Association, upon being called to order, was opened with prayer by Rev. L. P. Clover.

The President appointed the following Committee on Nominations:

Messrs. J. F. Eberhart, James Gow, S. M. Etter, W. H. Haskell, M. V. B. Shattuck, W. M. Baker, E. L. Clark, Wm. S. Wood, S. A. Briggs.

Mr. BATEMAN then addressed the Association upon the subject of proposed amendments to the School-Law.

[Much of what Mr. Bateman read is to appear as part of his official report: we are therefore requested not to present any sketch of it, as it should of course first appear in the official document. The changes which he proposes are amendments of the law which do not affect its fundamental plan and provisions, but are designed to facilitate its

operation by removing some few objectionable features, and by adding a few desirable provisions.]

Mr. CHASE offered the following resolution :

Resolved, That the alterations and amendments proposed to the School-Law by Hon. N. Bateman are important : that their tendency would be to increase the efficiency and facilitate the practical workings of the public-school system : we therefore earnestly recommend their incorporation into the statutes of the State.

Mr. CHENEY suggested that it would be better to have separate resolutions upon the several propositions.

The resolution of Mr. Chase was unanimously adopted.

After a recess of ten minutes, Rev. L. P. CLOVER read a paper upon the subject of 'Drawing as connected with the Common and Higher Pursuits of Life'.

Mr. ALEXANDER M. GOW then read an Essay on 'Natural History in Schools'.

The Association then adjourned.

AFTERNOON.

Immediately after the meeting was called to order, Mr. H. S. DAVIS, City Superintendent of Quincy, on behalf of the citizens and teachers of the city, invited the members of the Association to meet them in a social réunion on Friday evening.

Mr. STONE moved that the invitation be accepted ; and the motion prevailed by unanimous vote.

Mr. ANDERSON moved that the hour of final adjournment be fixed at 5 o'clock P.M. on Friday : and after some discussion the motion prevailed.

The Committee on Nominations was called on to report, and by Mr. Eberhart reported the following nominations, which were accepted :

President—W. H. WELLS, Chicago. *Vice-Presidents*—1st Congressional District, GEORGE HICKS, Galena ; 2d, A. M. GOW, Dixon ; 3d, L. H. CHENEY, Joliet ; 4th, J. S. POAGE, Aledo ; 5th, J. G. MARCHANT, Quincy ; 6th, C. H. FLOWER, Springfield ; 7th, JOHN HULL, Salem ; 8th, M. V. B. SHATTUCK, Alton ; 9th, B. G. ROOTS, Tamaroa. *Committee on Programme*—ISAAC STONE, Ottawa ; E. C. HEWETT, Bloomington ; W. M. BAKER, Quincy. *Recording Secretary*—SAMUEL A. BRIGGS, Beardstown. *Corresponding Secretary*—W. A. CHAMBERLIN, Griggsville. *Treasurer*—IRA J. BLOOMFIELD, Bloomington.

On motion of Mr. BLODGETT, the President was directed to cast the unanimous vote of the Association for Mr. W. H. Wells for President, and it was done.

On motion of Mr. HERBERT, the other persons nominated were elected in like manner.

Messrs. Haskell and Stone were appointed to conduct the President-elect to the platform.

Mr. WELLS, in accepting the office, briefly addressed the Association in acknowledgment of the honor. In his remarks he alluded to the important position occupied at this time by the State of Illinois in the cause of education, comparing it with his former State, Massachusetts. He spoke of the action of this day, the coming of the State Superintendent to this body to obtain its recommendation for his propositions of amendment to the School-law; the teachers of Massachusetts, however powerful and excellent, would never have been so respected by the General Court of that ancient State.

Mr. ANDERSON moved a reconsideration of his former resolution respecting final adjournment, in order to allow further discussion of its policy.

Mr. GOW moved to amend by fixing the time of adjournment at the close of the session this evening; and the proposition so amended was adopted.

Rev. J. S. POAGE, of Aledo, read an essay on the theme 'Moral Courage an Element of Character essential to the Scholar'.

After a recess, Mr. HASKELL announced an arrangement for the evening, to have a social meeting after final adjournment.

Mr. HEWETT, from the Committee on Resolutions, reported the following resolutions, which were accepted, and laid upon the table till the evening session :

WHEREAS, We deem it a privilege to express our thanks to those who have granted us favors, and our duty to declare our principles as an association; therefore,

Resolved, That we tender to the good citizens of Quincy our deepest gratitude for the cheerful and hearty reception which they have given us, and the abundant generosity with which they have entertained us; and, accustomed as we have been to be kindly treated in those towns where our meetings have been held, we can truly say that never has our treatment been more kind, and we feel deep regret that circumstances beyond our control have prevented us from enjoying all the hospitality they designed for us.

Resolved, That we hereby offer our hearty thanks and good wishes to those friends who have entertained and instructed us by lectures and essays.

Resolved, That our obligations are deep and lasting to those Railroad Companies who have granted us reduced fare, and we hereby express our belief that no pecuniary loss will ever result from such worthy kindness.

Resolved, That our profession requires the earnest use of all our powers and the employment of every attainable means for improvement; we therefore have reason to doubt the earnestness and devotion of those who fail to take educational periodicals and attend educational conventions when possible.

Resolved, That we consider the acceptance of an invitation to lecture or to present any other exercise to an Institute or Association a moral obligation, and the non-fulfillment of such an engagement, except for some Providential interference, a breach of faith unworthy of a teacher or a gentleman.

Mr. PARKER moved that the Committee on Programme be requested to provide alternates to the persons invited to address the Association: but after some discussion the motion was withdrawn.

Mr. GOW, of the Committee on Mr. Haskell's plans of a School-House, presented their report, as follows:

The Committee to whom were referred the plans of Union-School House submitted by Mr. W. H. Haskell, would respectfully report that they have given these plans a careful examination, and now recommend the adoption of the following resolution:

Resolved, That this Association regards the erection of good school-buildings as a matter of the first importance; and that the plans of a Union-School building submitted by Mr. Haskell, of Canton, are better adapted to the wants of a Graded School with recitation-rooms for the use of assistant teachers than any other plans that have fallen under our observation.

A. M. GOW,
W. H. WELLS, } Committee.
L. H. CHENEY,

The report was adopted, with the resolution.

The following resolution then passed:

Resolved, That we condemn the practice of changing school-books in such a way that those with similar title-pages vary so as to cause confusion in their use.

Mr. HEWETT presented an invitation to the Association to hold its next session at Bloomington.

Dr. WILLARD presented a resolution that the next session be held at Bloomington, beginning on Tuesday, December 24th, 1861.

The Society then adjourned till 7 P.M.

7 O'CLOCK P.M.

The President introduced to the audience Hon. J. M. GREGORY, Superintendent of Public Instruction in Michigan, who delivered a lecture upon the theme, 'Education the Business of Life'.

Mr. STONE moved a resolution thanking Mr. Gregory for his lecture, and asking a copy for publication in the *N. W. Home and School Journal*.

The resolution was adopted.

Mr. MARCHANT reported that he, as Treasurer *pro tem.*, had received \$66 as admission fees.

Mr. BLODGETT offered a resolution that the Treasurer-elect correspond with the Treasurer elected last year and settle with him, drawing on him for any balance in his hands; and the resolution was adopted.

Mr. CHILDS moved that the report of the Committee on Resolutions be taken up, and it was so ordered: and the resolutions were severally adopted.

Mr. HEWETT offered a resolution of thanks to the papers of the city that have granted us favors ; and it was adopted. [NOTE.—Only one of the papers of the city, the *Whig and Republican*, is entitled to the compliment of the resolution.]

A motion was made to reconsider the last resolution of the Committee on Resolutions ; but reconsideration was denied.

Rev. Mr. KING, in behalf of the citizens of Quincy, gracefully thanked the members for their visit to this city. The meetings had been full of interest and of profit. The session would teach the members an important lesson in geography, for in going to their homes they must go in some direction from Quincy ; hence it follows that every place is in some direction from Quincy, and *therefore* Quincy must be the centre of the world ! [Laughter.] So hereafter they must describe Chicago as a flourishing city 260 miles N.E. of this centre. [Renewed laughter.] He complimented the teachers on their devotion to their work and their earnestness, and said that if South Carolina had had such teachers she would not now be drifting about and attempting to dissolve the Union. The citizens of Quincy had heard that the schoolmaster was abroad, but they had tried to make him at home while he was with them.

A motion to adjourn prevailed : the Association joined in singing Old Hundred, and the President pronounced the session closed by final adjournment.

The audience in great part remained, the seats were removed from the floor of the Hall, and for an hour longer a large number both of citizens and visitors spent the evening in social converse. Of the Réunion on Friday evening a brief account will be found in the Editor's Table.

CONSTITUTION OF THE ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

ARTICLE I. This Association shall be called 'THE ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION'.

ART. II. This Association shall hold its meetings annually.

ART. III. The officers of this Association shall consist of a President ; nine Vice-Presidents, one from each Congressional District in the State ; a Recording Secretary ; a Corresponding Secretary ; a Treasurer ; a Committee on Programme and Arrangements ; and a Committee on School Government : all of whom shall be appointed annually and hold their offices until their successors are elected.

ART. IV. It shall be the duty of the President to preside at the regular meetings of the Association and to attend to all the duties incumbent upon said office : and some one of the Vice-Presidents shall preside in case of his absence.

The President and the nine Vice-Presidents shall constitute the Executive Board of the Association, six of whom shall be a quorum to transact business. It shall be the duty of this Executive Board to advise with the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, with the Corresponding Secretary of the Association, and with the Treasurer; to report to the Association annually any revision they deem expedient in the School-Law and in this Constitution; to attend to the general interests of the Association; and to take a general supervision of the cause of education in their respective districts, by advising with the County Commissioners, Township Trustees, and District School Directors.

ART. V. It shall be the duty of the Recording Secretary to keep a correct account of the proceedings of the Association.

ART. VI. It shall be the duty of the Corresponding Secretary to conduct all the foreign correspondence of the Association.

ART. VII. It shall be the duty of the Treasurer to receive membership-fees and all other funds accruing by donation or otherwise, and disburse the same on the order of the Executive Board: and he shall be required to make an annual report to the Association of the condition of the finances.

ART. VIII. It shall be the duty of the Committee on Programme and Arrangements to arrange the literary exercises for each session of the Association.

ART. IX. It shall be the duty of the Committee on School Government to report annually to the Association the best manner of governing schools.

ART. X. This Association shall consist of teachers, and of state, county, township, and district school officers in the State of Illinois; each male member paying one dollar annually and signing the Constitution.

Honorary members may be elected at any annual meeting, and may participate in the debates, but not be entitled to vote.

ART. XI. All officers shall be elected by ballot except when otherwise ordered by the Association, a majority of votes electing.

ART. XII. The Executive Board of the Association shall have power to fill any vacancies that may occur in the offices of the Association by death, resignation, or otherwise, between the Annual Sessions of the Association.

ART. XIII. This Constitution may be altered and amended by a vote of two-thirds of the members present at any regular meeting of the Association.

STATE SUPERINTENDENT'S REPORT.

MR. BATEMAN has favored us with advance sheets of the Third Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, for the years 1859 and 1860, with a request that we should give to extracts from it as much space as we can allow in this number of the *Teacher*. We do so with great pleasure, believing that, though we rob our readers of our usual variety of articles, they will find in the report of the State Teachers' Association and the extracts from Mr. Bateman's Report as much that is readable and valuable as

we should be able to put before them in our usual mode of making up the *Teacher*.

STATISTICS.—We extract from the Report the following general statistics beside those contained in the comparative review below:

	1859.	1860.
Number of male scholars.....	249,770	247,508
Number of female scholars.....	202,114	216,796
Number of persons between the ages of 5 and 21....	504,631	546,194
No. of districts in which no schools have been kept..	850	734
Number of scholars in private schools.....	16,246	19,264
Number of graded schools.....	300	294

The following statistics were not included in the blanks issued for 1859:

Whole number of pupils <i>under six</i> years of age.....	26,290
Largest number of pupils taught by one teacher at the same time..	200
Average number of pupils to each teacher.....	33
Number of school-houses of the <i>first grade</i>	2,236
Number of school-houses of the <i>second grade</i>	4,608
Number of school-houses of the <i>third grade</i>	1,084
Whole number of <i>log</i> school-houses.....	1,447
Whole number of <i>frame</i> school-houses.....	5,561
Whole number of <i>brick</i> school-houses.....	627
Whole number of <i>stone</i> school-houses.....	212
Number of school-houses containing more than one room.....	634

School-houses of the first grade are "such as are in good repair, with good lot well fenced, and provided with suitable out-houses; furnished with blackboards, and good seats enough to accommodate all the scholars of the district." The second grade includes "such as are in tolerably good repair; but with small lot, uninclosed, destitute of out-houses, poorly seated, and not large enough for the scholars of the district." The third grade includes those judged by the township treasurers to be "totally unfit for the purpose for which they are used."

Teachers' Institutes were held in forty-four counties in 1860, according to Commissioners' reports. The average cost of tuition, found by dividing the whole amount of teachers' wages by the whole number of scholars, is \$3.19: the highest average rate being in St. Clair Co., \$5.14; and the lowest in Edgar Co., 71 cents.

COMPARATIVE VIEW.—A comparison of the more important statistics as reported in 1856, 1858, and 1860, is made in the subjoined synopsis. The items compared are few in number, owing to the meagreness of the returns for 1856; but the view afforded of the growth of the interests of the common schools since the adoption of the present system is interesting and suggestive.

	1856.	1858.	1860.
Whole number of schools.....	6,794	10,238	9,262
Whole number of scholars.....	312,393	440,339	472,247
Number of male teachers.....	4,952	7,503	8,283
Number of female teachers.....	4,369	5,878	6,485
Number of white persons under 21 years of age.....	529,485	809,879	895,248
Whole number of districts.....	6,813	8,133	8,956
No. of dist's in which sch's have been kept 6 mos. or more	6,447	7,954
Whole number of school-houses.....	6,629	8,221
Number of private schools.....	530	590
Principal of township funds.....	\$3,095,937 00	\$3,323,751 00	\$3,494,580 00
Interest of township funds paid to treasurers..	288,093 00	307,968 00	322,852 00
Average monthly wages of male teachers.....	45 23	29 66	28 82
Average monthly wages of female teachers.....	27 10	19 48	18 80
Amount of State fund paid to township treasurers.....	589,011 00	801,218 00	738,583 00
Amount raised by district tax.....	341,964 00	562,927 00	1,265,137 00
Whole amount paid teachers.....	887,308 00	1,380,682 00	1,512,211 00
Amount paid for school apparatus.....	6,294 00	4,733 00	8,563 00
Amount paid as compensation to township officers.....	31,920 00	33,043 00	31,982 00
Whole amount received for school purposes.....	1,143,457 00	2,100,965 00	2,193,455 00
Whole amount expended for school purposes.....	921,297 00	3,127,033 00	2,259,868 00

REMARKS ON THE SUMMARIES AND TABLES.—The tabular statement of the amount of the productive principal of the School Fund shows an increase of nearly a third of a million of dollars in the last two years. In 1858 the aggregate of that fund was \$4,615,919.75; in 1860 it was \$4,919,054.83: increase in two years \$303,135.08.

It will be seen by comparing the whole number of schools returned in 1858 and 1860, that the number reported for the former year exceeds that for the latter by 1,076. At first view this certainly seems extraordinary and indicative of the wrong kind of progress. But it can be demonstrated in a moment that this decrease is only *apparent*, not real; that, on the contrary, there has been a *large increase* in the number of schools since 1858. To prove this, it is only necessary to premise that the number of schools must of necessity be the same as the number of school-houses, unless rooms or places temporarily hired for school purposes should be omitted by the treasurers in their enumeration of school-houses, which is not probable; and even then the exception to the above rule would be inconsiderable. Assuming, then, substantial equality between the number of school-houses and schools, what are the facts? The report of 1858 gives us 10,238 schools and only 6,629 school-houses, being an excess of 3,609 schools over the number of school-houses — or more than fifty-four per cent. The same correction should undoubtedly be made for the number of schools returned for 1856; but, the number of school-houses not being returned for that year, we have no means of testing the point. If this reasoning be correct, and it seems self-evident, the true number of schools in 1858 is about 6,629. Applying the same principles to the reports for 1860, we find the number of schools to be 9,162, and the number of school-houses 8,221, being an excess of the former of 941, or more than eleven per cent.; not so glaring as in the former case, but still sufficiently absurd. The true number of schools for 1860 is, therefore, 8,221, being an actual net gain over 1858 of 1,592, which corresponds very nearly with the aggregate number of *new school-houses* reported for 1859–60, thus affording additional proof of the correctness of the explanation given.

It remains to account, if possible, for these strange errors in the reports of the local officers. The true solution is undoubtedly to be found in a misapprehension by many of the township officers of the right meaning to be given to the word *school* as used in the law and in the blanks. Supposing it to be synonymous with the words *term* and *quarter*, the local officers have evidently reported, in many instances, the number of different *quarters* taught in a given school-house and district, as being so many different *schools*, within the meaning of the law. This would at once account for the enormous excess of schools reported from some counties. In fourteen counties the ratio of schools to school-houses, in the report for 1858, is more than *two to one*.

Not only is this the most *probable* explanation of the discrepancy in question, but in many cases it is *known* to be the true solution. In the report made to this office in 1859, *thirty-six schools* were returned from a certain township in which, within my own personal knowledge, there were only *nine districts*, *nine school-houses*, and *nine schools*; but, four *terms* of school had been taught in *each school-house*. But the point needs no further demonstration. The fact that the discrepancy for 1860 is so much less than for 1858 is due, no doubt, to the special care taken in the latter year, by means of minute instructions in circulars, etc., to correct misapprehension on the subject. This brief allusion to the matter seemed called for to prevent erroneous impressions in respect to the actual progress of the schools.

The report for 1860 gives 546,194 white persons between the ages of five and twenty-one. This is the whole number of persons who, according to the provisions of the law, were entitled to the benefits of the public schools — or who were *due* at the schools. Of this number 19,264 are reported as having attended private schools; for it may be assumed that the pupils of the latter schools are all or nearly all embraced within the legal limits of five and twenty-one. Deducting this number from the former, we have a net aggregate of 526,930 persons who were *due at the public schools* in 1860. The number of scholars *actually enrolled* in all the public schools of the State for the same year was 472,247, being 54,683,

or eleven per cent. less than the number due. In other words, only eighty-nine per cent. of all those reported as due at the schools in 1860 were in actual attendance. Assuming that existing school accommodations were adequate for the remaining eleven per cent., we are prepared to appreciate the enormous pecuniary loss sustained by the State from the great evil of absenteeism, and the necessity of greater efforts to induce the attendance of all the children who are legally eligible to the public schools. Thus, the State expended \$1,512,211.39 in 1860 for tuition. For this sum, 526,930 pupils *should* have been benefited. But, *in fact*, only 472,247 pupils shared in the instructions of the teachers; only eighty-nine per cent. of the work that was paid for, and that should have been done, was in fact performed, resulting in a cash loss to the State of \$166,343.25. If we take the whole amount expended for all school purposes as the basis for the calculation, the loss will be increased to the startling sum of \$248,585.56. These results are worthy of grave consideration; they are of a character which the public seem slow to apprehend and acknowledge, yet the soundness of the reasoning by which the conclusions are reached, and hence their strict truthfulness, can not be doubted. No financial problem is susceptible of a clearer solution. It will be observed, too, that the foregoing estimates rest upon the assumption of the *regular attendance* of the whole number of pupils enrolled. When the proper allowance is made for irregular attendance, and for those who only attend a few weeks or months, the grand total of loss will be swelled to still more formidable dimensions. From this view, it would seem to be the clear duty of the State to employ all lawful means to promote and secure the largest and most regular attendance upon the schools established by law.

The whole number of districts in 1858 was 8133, of which 6447, or 79 per cent., complied with the law requiring a six-months school. The number of districts in 1860 was 8956, of which 7954, or 88 per cent., had school for six months or more. Increase of districts in two years, 828; increase of districts having six-months school, 1507, or 23 per cent. Number of districts in 1860 in which *no* schools were kept, 734, or about 8 per cent.; leaving 268 districts which had schools, but not for six months.

The average number of months schools were kept in 1860 was six and eight-tenths, being about the same as for 1858. This, in view of the fact that by the act of 1859 directors were expressly prohibited from extending the terms of schools beyond six months without a vote of the people, a power which was extensively exercised under the act of 1857, must be considered as in the highest degree encouraging, especially when we take into account the financial stringency of the period embraced in this report. The fears entertained by those who deprecated the rigid restrictive clause embodied in the 48th section, believing that it would inevitably depress the State averages for 1859 and 1860, have not been realized. It has been found entirely safe, as a general fact, to leave the determination of the question of extension to the voice of the people of the several districts.

All the foregoing summaries are based upon the official returns from one hundred and one counties. The reports from Lawrence county arrived too late to be included in the State aggregates.

SCHOOL LAW.—To no subject have I devoted more earnest attention during my official term than to the practical working of the present school law, and the progress of public sentiment in relation thereto. The complaints and objections, chiefly from township and district officers, which burdened the mails from all parts of the State, led me at an early day to institute a careful inquiry into the nature and extent of the cause or causes of these complaints, preparatory to the discovery and application of the remedy. It soon became apparent that the origin of the dissatisfaction was *not* traceable to any general unwillingness on the part of the people of the State to acquiesce in the taxation necessary to carry into effect the provisions of the act. On the contrary, I found that with fewer exceptions, comparatively, than could reasonably have been anticipated, the wisdom and validity of the cardinal principles upon which the free-school system is based were cordially admitted, and the requisite assessments cheerfully submitted to and paid.

Where, then, was the difficulty? A brief examination of the general tenor of the points raised in the correspondence of the parties complainant served to satisfy me that a very large part of the trouble was directly referable to a misapprehension of the law itself, and the manner of discharging the obligations and duties imposed by its provisions. This fact having been determined, the policy proper to be adopted was of course clear. I immediately began to make notes of such points in the letters received as seemed to be of general importance, and to publish them with comments and remarks explanatory, first in the *Illinois Teacher*, and then in the form of official circulars. Many thousand copies of these circulars, embracing in the end hints and suggestions upon most of the leading provisions of the school law, were issued to the school commissioners, and by them distributed extensively in all the counties of the State. In many instances, the whole or a part of the circulars have been copied and republished in the newspapers friendly to the cause of common schools in the several counties, thereby greatly increasing the dissemination of the desired information, contributing to the success of the cause, and placing this department under lasting obligations.

The influence of this system of measures immediately began to be felt in the diminished influx of letters upon points treated of in the circulars, and resulted in fully establishing the correctness of the opinion upon which their preparation and issue were based. Not only has the average weekly correspondence, touching all those legal provisions which are brought under review in the circulars, decreased more than fifty per cent., but hundreds of letters now on file testify directly and in strong terms to the fact which I assumed in the outset, that a misunderstanding of the law had been the cause of a large proportion of the objections urged against and the trouble arising under it; and that with a knowledge of the real scope and requirements of the act and the manner of performing their several duties, school officers are becoming comparatively satisfied with the law as it is. To such an extent is this true, that not a few who were the most uncompromising in their opposition a year ago now desire to be numbered among the firmest friends of the present law.

These results are suggestive, imparting much light for our future guidance. They reveal the gratifying fact that so far as the essential feature of the system is concerned—a general *ad valorem* tax for educational purposes—the popular sentiment of the State, if not unanimous, is rapidly assuming the form of deep and settled conviction in its favor. They teach us also that men are disposed to condemn what they do not comprehend, for no other or better reason, often, than *because* they do not comprehend it; and that they are ready to modify or reverse their hasty judgments when satisfactory reasons are seen for so doing. They illustrate and enforce the truth that much time is required fully to develop the fitness or unfitness, the strength or weakness, of a system so difficult and complicated, relatively, as any adequate school-law must of necessity be. But the experience alluded to assumes a special interest in its bearings upon the question of what course it is most expedient for the friends of common schools to pursue in respect to the school-law at the present session of the Legislature. It was my purpose, two years ago, to submit to the next General Assembly the outlines of a brief yet consistent and comprehensive school-code, in lieu of the one now in force. That a system could be framed combining the essentials of brevity, compactness, and strength, with those of perspicuity and flexible adaptability, there can be no doubt; but such a law would retain scarcely a vestige of the present one, except the single provision of a State tax: the complicated machinery, the cumbrous agencies, the conflicting lines of interest and jurisdiction, and the vast array of redundant officers, would all be swept away. It would not be a modification of the old, but the substitution of a new and radically different law.

But a few months' observation and reflection seriously impaired my confidence, not in the need and practicability of the proposed change, but in the conviction that the time for it had arrived. And the impression that the time had not yet come, though it was not far distant, continued to strengthen until it has ripened into a firm and deliberate conviction.

It is probable that three classes of opinions will be advanced in the present Legislature, in respect to our educational policy:

1. That the present law be *radically* changed or repealed and a new one enacted in its stead.

2. That no change whatever be made in the law.

3. That the present law be amended so as to improve its workings in some particulars, so far as it can be done *without disturbing any of its fundamental provisions*.

Against the policy recommended in the first of the above propositions much that has already been advanced has a direct bearing. The present system has by no means been fully tested — the fruits which it is capable of producing are not yet all mature. When those fruits shall have been fully ripened and garnered, and their quality determined, the nature and capabilities of the tree can be judged by an unerring standard, and it will be easy to decide whether some of the branches should be lopped off and new grafts inserted, or whether the tree itself should be plucked up by the roots. No reforms are so easy or so enduring as those whose nature and necessity have been demonstrated by experience. Men will adopt new ideas and cherish a new faith when convinced of the fallacy of the old. It can not be doubted that the interests of common schools have steadily advanced during the past two years; that the workings of the system in the State generally have never been so smooth and satisfactory; that the results have never been so rich and encouraging as in the biennial period just closed. These facts are disclosed in the statistical returns, and confirmed by the statements of school-officers. There are exceptions, of course — there always have been and always will be; but the general truth could be affirmed in even stronger terms than those which I have employed. We have seen what a change has followed the effort to explain and apply the principles of the law; how many have ceased to complain as soon as their duties and the mode of performing them were understood, and how numerous and emphatic are the requests from the people that no radical changes be made at the present time. Judging from the past, it is reasonable to anticipate increased satisfaction and still more harmonious action for the next two years. The people are averse to frequent changes in the laws: they confuse, irritate, and annoy. While this fact should by no means deter from new enactments when absolutely demanded, it is entitled to respectful consideration, and has no little to do with the question of when and how often additional legislation should be invoked. The largest part of the practical duties required by the present law are imposed upon men who are engaged in farming and other active business employments: plain, honest, intelligent men, who wish their children to have a good, sound education, but who have neither time nor inclination to master the intricacies of a new school-system every two or even every four years. This fact enforces, it is true, the necessity of a briefer and simpler code, but it also suggests the expediency of not hastily disturbing the provisions of a law which, though not, perhaps, the simplest and best, has at last come to be understood. It is difficult for those whose pursuits lead them to a constant familiarity with the framework of educational systems and statutory enactments to appreciate the difficulty and annoyance experienced by those of other and foreign pursuits in understanding and growing accustomed to the new order of things. And besides, no legislative enactment, however just and perfect, has any inherent power to lift a people at once from darkness to light, from a low to an exalted conception of education, any more than text-books alone can create a scholar, or constitutions alone save a nation. There is other work to be done before the acts of the law-maker can become effective. The Senate is not the only forum upon which educational themes must be discussed. From Houses of Representatives the appeal must be carried to the houses of the people. There are prejudices to be removed, interests to be awakened, issues to be appreciated, untold blessings to be perceived by the eye of faith, before the popular will can be embodied in acts of General Assemblies. And this work can only be done in the quiet homes and by the firesides and in the primary assemblages of the people themselves. Education must be valued, constitutions must be revered and loved, or mere legal enactments can no more secure the permanent growth of the former than the naked political principles contained in the latter can insure the union and prosperity of the States.

It may not be improper also to suggest that the present session of the General

Assembly may be less favorable than usual for the calm and deliberate discussion of the principles and details of a new or radically different bill. Experience has confirmed what reason alone teaches, that no department of legislation should receive more mature reflection and cautious action than that which relates to the adjustment of the educational policy of a State. It is an easy matter to conduct a bill through the parliamentary forms, put it upon its final passage, and secure for it the signature of the Executive. But no prophecy can anticipate, no regrets avert, no subsequent prudence wholly remedy, the consequences of hasty, ill-digested legislation. It may be worthy of thought, therefore, whether the unusual pressure of public business, the grave financial principles which must be settled, and the political convulsions of the times, may not lessen the probabilities of the liberal yet prudent and conservative legislation, at the present time, which the consideration of a radically different educational system so eminently requires.

For these and many other reasons, which the limits of this report will not permit me to state, the opinion is respectfully yet confidently advanced that of the three propositions supposed the one under review is the least likely to lead, at the present time, to the best results. This view is corroborated by the judgment of a majority of the school commissioners of the State, whose advice upon this point was particularly solicited. Letters from twenty-four commissioners, resident in different parts of the State, from Cook to Gallatin, lie before me, all substantially agreeing in what has now been suggested.

But it is assumed that advocates of the opposite extreme will not be wanting; those who will deprecate any amendment or change whatever in the present law. While it is believed that the adoption of even this policy would, at the present time, be safer than that embraced in the first proposition, yet no sufficient reasons seem to exist for withholding such modifications as would manifestly facilitate and strengthen the operations of the present act without requiring a readjustment of its principal machinery. If the first class of opinions is too radical, the second is too conservative; if the former would, under existing circumstances, endanger the safety of principles already established, of conquests already achieved, the latter would hinder the growth of those principles and prevent the achievement of new and greater conquests. From these twin-dangers, that of *too-fast* on the one hand and *too-slow* on the other, it is proposed to take refuge in the safe harbor that lies in the THIRD proposition — to add a plank here and a spar there, so that the present vessel *will sail better*; not to scuttle her and shape the keel of another. In favor of this policy, as the best for the cause *now*, more than nine-tenths of all the teachers and school-officers of the State with whom I have conferred are firmly and earnestly committed. I respectfully commend it to your favorable regard, and invoke for it the support of the legislature. How, then, shall we improve and strengthen the ship so as to render her more sea-worthy and fit her for a successful cruise of at least two years more? After much deliberation and conference with teachers and other friends of education in the State, the following amendments are respectfully proposed:

I. Amend Section 20, requiring each school commissioner to visit every school in his county at least once in each year, and allowing three dollars a day for such services, for any number of days not exceeding one hundred in any one year.

Remarks.—In common with others, I was for a long time under the belief that a similar provision in the act of 1855, allowing two dollars a day for not more than fifty days in a year, was repealed by the act of 1857. This seemed unreasonable, inasmuch as the same duties, substantially, were required by the latter act as by the former. Recurring to the 97th section, it was at once apparent that the provision in question was not in fact repealed by the act of 1857, although *omitted* in said act. For the 97th section repeals only the acts of '49, '51, and '53, 'and all other acts and parts of acts *coming in conflict* with the provisions of this act'. The clause in question was not in the acts of '49, '51, and '53, and therefore could not have been repealed with them. Neither is it in any sense 'in conflict' with the provisions of the 20th section of the act of 1857, but in manifest harmony therewith, unless the allowance of pay is in conflict with the requisition of labor. It was no doubt the intention of the Legislature to repeal the clause; but it was not done — omission is not necessarily repeal.

From no other cause have the interests of common schools suffered so deeply, since the passage of the first free-school act till now, as from the want of close, competent, energetic and faithful supervision. The necessity of this, if not self-evident, must appear from very slight examination of the subject. It is *the great want* of our system of public instruction — a want which pervades its whole framework, from the central department at Springfield to the smallest and remotest district in the State. The disastrous consequences of this, as well as the nature of the remedy required, are so forcibly stated in the excellent report of my immediate predecessor, that I need only allude to them here. That remedy is thought to be, in the plan of *county superintendencies* — the committal of the educational interests of each county to the direct supervision of one person, who shall devote his whole time exclusively to the work and be the reliable and efficient coadjutor of the State Superintendent. No one could attempt to conduct the affairs of this office for over three months without perceiving the great necessity of such a coöperative officer. The advantages that would accrue from such a system of constant and vigilant supervision are beyond computation. The subject is commended to your thoughtful consideration. If the proposal should be favorably entertained, the points of practical difficulty requiring the most careful guarding are the selection of the right men, without regard to political affiliations, or any other conditions but those of fitness for the work; the manner of electing or appointing them; and the amount and manner in which they shall be paid. Entertaining strong apprehensions that these difficulties will be found too formidable for the success of the recommendation at the present session, even if they do not prevent its consideration altogether, I have proposed the foregoing amendment as a measure of at least partial relief and approximate justice to a body of school officers, many of whom have devoted days, weeks and months of earnest and effective labor for the benefit of the schools with no expectation of pecuniary reward.

It is difficult to account for such an extraordinary act of legislation as that which imposes upon School Commissioners duties scarcely surpassed in importance and magnitude by those devolved upon any other school officers, duties requiring for their faithful discharge much ability, time, and attention, while the compensation to which such services are entitled is left wholly unprovided for by law. To those who perceive the close connection of devoted and competent commissioners with the success of our whole system, it is not easy to see how such a policy could find supporters either in or out of the legislature among those who are not hostile to the system itself. It is certain that the avowed opponents of good free schools could hardly aim at them a more effective blow than by advocating such a course. It is a bid for incompetency in the officer, and invites neglect in the duties of the office. Its *tendency* is to fill the highest county school offices known to the law with incumbents who seek them only *for the sake of the commissions* accruing from the sale of lands and the distribution of the public funds — with persons who, in accepting the office, propose to themselves to render those services which *will pay*, and to *neglect* those which *will not*. It need not be said that the *financial* duties of a school commissioner, though important, are utterly insignificant compared with his *educational* duties. Any man with ordinary honesty, and even less than ordinary business capacity, can sell a piece of land and apportion a few hundred dollars; but no *mere business man*, be his talents ordinary or extraordinary, can properly perform the educational services expressed and implied in the 20th and 50th sections of the school law. It is these duties which impart all real value and significance to the office of school commissioner, so far as its relation to educational interests is concerned; apart from these duties, the office might be abolished to-morrow without the slightest shock or damage to the *essential* interests of common schools. Is it not extraordinary, then, I ask again, that for the *least important* and least difficult services *ample* compensation is allowed by law, while for the *most essential* and onerous services *no* compensation at all is allowed? that a *school officer* should be paid for attending to a few *business* matters, and *not* paid for attending to *school* matters?

I have said that the *tendency* of the policy of the last two legislatures is to fill the office in question with mercenary and incompetent men. That so many school

commissioners are in fact the reverse of this is not due to the wisdom or generosity of the legal provision now under review. I should do injustice to the truth, and to my own grateful appreciation of services performed under eminently disheartening circumstances, if I were to close this report without again alluding, in a pointed manner, to the arduous labor, patient faithfulness, and official promptitude, which have characterized a large number of the school commissioners of the State. Several of them have visited all the schools in their respective counties from one to four times during the past two years, and labored devotedly for the cause of education, not only without remuneration, but with heavy pecuniary sacrifices. It is to be regretted that there are many to whom no such commendation is due; but while the disinterested conduct of the former class can not be too highly praised, it is hard very severely to censure those who decline to 'work for nothing and find themselves'—who can see no good reason why the State should require or expect men to visit, superintend and improve her schools from pure benevolence, without pay, while a different and more rational policy is pursued in respect to all other public interests. I earnestly ask that a reasonable compensation be granted to school commissioners for the *educational* services which are required of them by law.

II. Amend Section 33, so that it shall expressly affirm that after a township has been laid off into districts the boundaries of those districts shall not be altered or changed without the consent of a majority of the legal voters in each and every district interested in or affected by such alteration or change: said consent to be expressed either by written petition, or by vote at a public meeting called for the purpose: when by the former, an actual majority of all the legal voters of the district shall be necessary: when by the latter, a majority of all *the votes cast* at the meeting shall be necessary—notice of the time, place and purpose of said meeting having been given as required in the 42d section of the Act. Also, amend the last clause of said section, prescribing the *manner* in which the trustees shall divide the property when a new district is formed from one or more districts.

[Mr. Bateman comments upon the existing law, which has been held by the Supreme Court to put entire control of the matter into the hands of the trustees absolutely. The proposed amendment would avoid conditions upon which that judgment was based, and substitute a much-desired and simple rule. We omit the remarks, as Mr. Bateman has in previous circulars set forth the reasons for endeavoring to establish the rule which the amendment will make into a law.]

III. Section 45. Strike out the word 'county' before the word 'collector', 17th page, 11th line from bottom. Allow county clerks a reasonable fee for extending district taxes and for certificates to township treasurers.

The words 'county collector' have caused some confusion in counties under township organization: this will be removed by the omission of the word 'county'. The law simply means to designate *the officer by whom the tax is collected*: which officer, in counties under township organization, is styled 'town collector', in all others, 'county collector'.

From an intimate knowledge of the onerous nature of the duty, I have long been of the opinion that some compensation should be allowed county clerks for their services in extending district taxes upon the books of the collectors, and making out certificates of the amounts levied and due in the several districts. It is true, the law imposes the duty of determining the rate and furnishing a list of resident tax-payers upon the directors of the respective districts; but, in fact, very few Boards of Directors attend to these duties: they are left to be performed by the clerks, as best they can, with the liability of frequent and vexatious errors in the names and residence of tax-payers. Clerks, it is true, have a right to *demand* of the directors the faithful discharge of the services required of them in the 44th section, as a condition precedent to the extension of the tax; but this involves so much delay and difficulty that the clerks generally prefer to do the work themselves; while the disastrous consequences to the districts of a failure to get the levy induces them to submit to the additional burden rather than to inflict upon the schools and teachers the penalty caused by the neglect of the directors. But even if the rates and lists were promptly and accurately returned, the remaining labor of computing separately each person's tax for nearly every district in every

township in the State, and making up the books for the collectors, is more than should be expected or required without additional compensation, especially when it is considered that in ninety-nine cases in a hundred the computation must be made upon a *different basis or rate* for each district in the township. I am aware that it is the policy of the law to protect the school-fund at all points, and to use rigid economy in its collection and distribution and in all the steps relating thereto: a policy the design and spirit of which can not be too highly commended. But it may well be doubted whether the beneficent intention of the law is really promoted by the imposition of so extraordinary an amount of unrequited labor upon a single class of officers, whether such economy may possess the requisite element of justice and reasonable encouragement to fidelity. A very moderate fee would satisfy the clerks and be cheerfully paid by the districts. I commend the subject as worthy of legislative regard.

IV. Section 48. Change the clause 'over the age of five and under twenty-one years', so as to read, 'over the age of *six*', etc.

It is believed that the evils incident to the admission to the public schools of children at the tender age of five years are, upon the whole, far greater than the benefits; that the efficiency of the schools is compromised, and the little ones in question are exposed to serious dangers, mentally, morally, and physically. Over twenty-six thousand pupils *under six* years of age are reported for 1860. But, from the fact that but few schedules give the age of scholars, rendering it very difficult to ascertain the exact number under six, I am satisfied that the above figures are much too low. My own experience in teaching under the present law, and extensive observation throughout the State, lead to the confident belief that the average number of children under six is not less than one-tenth of the whole number enrolled in the State — or about *fifty thousand*. The bearings of this fact, and the reasons which seem to commend the wisdom of the proposed addition of one year to the minimum of eligibility now fixed by law, are more fully considered in another part of this report.

V. Section 50. Provide for three grades of certificates to be issued by the school commissioner, as follows:

1st Grade, *county* certificate, good for two years.

2d Grade, *county* certificate, good for one year.

3d Grade, *district* certificate, good for six months, in a given district only.

Provide also for the issue of a *State* certificate, or Diploma, in the following manner:

The Superintendent of Public Instruction shall nominate five persons, to be approved by the Governor and Senate, as a *State Board of Examiners*, whose term of office shall expire at the same time with that of the Superintendent.

This Board shall prepare a scheme of the *subjects, methods, conditions and rules* of the examination, to be approved by the Superintendent.

No honorary diplomas shall be issued; nor shall the Diploma be awarded to any person who shall not, before his examination, exhibit to the Board of Examiners satisfactory written evidence from the directors, board of education, school committee, or other authorized school officers by whom he was employed, that he has had at *least three years of successful experience* in teaching, at least one of which shall have been in this State. All of which facts shall be included in the certificate of the Examiners to the State Superintendent, as hereinafter mentioned, and without which it shall not be lawful for the Superintendent to issue any diploma to any person whatever.

The Board shall meet for the examination of candidates for State Certificates at the State Normal University, near the City of Bloomington, on the Wednesday preceding the fourth day of July in each year, and at no other time or place: provided, that the examination may be continued from day to day, if necessary, until it is completed. Three Examiners shall constitute a quorum, without which no examination shall be proceeded with.

At the close of the examination, the Board shall certify in writing, which certificate shall not be valid unless signed by every member thereof present, the name or names of the candidate or candidates whose examination is satisfactory. Upon receipt of said written voucher, the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall is-

sue to the successful candidates, under the seal of the office of Public Instruction, State Certificates or Diplomas, which shall supersede the necessity of any and all other examinations whatsoever, and be of *perpetual validity* in every county and district in the State of Illinois. But said certificates may be revoked by the State Superintendent upon proof of immoral or unprofessional conduct, certified by a majority of the State Board of Examiners.

Upon no other subject is the sentiment of the intelligent teachers and school commissioners of the State so earnestly unanimous as upon that embraced in these amendments. Their voice is heard from every county, invoking the interposition of the legislature to arrest the injustice which puts upon a level of perfect equality the man who owes his certificate to the leniency of the examiners, or his own *importunate pleading*, and the polished scholar and experienced teacher, who sustains with unflinching readiness and precision the severest scrutiny authorized by law or practiced by the most acute and competent examiners. That the present law does not contemplate or authorize the grading of certificates by school commissioners there can be no doubt whatever. That such license *should* be allowed seems equally clear. A due regard to the interests of the community, as well as of teachers, demands it. As it is now, the directors and people are without any means of discrimination between the relative merits of candidates: at least, the certificates afford no such means. A district may be desirous to secure a superior teacher, and willing to pay him well: a representative of each of the extreme classes above described may present himself and exhibit his certificate. Now, if these parties are strangers to the directors personally, what shall guide them to a selection of the better instead of the poorer teacher? But if one bears a certificate marked *first grade*, while that of the other is designated *third grade*, a ground of choice is at once afforded. It is no rational objection to say that the certificate is not a reliable test, for that argument would be as fatal to the policy of issuing any certificates *at all* as to that of graded certificates. Proving too much, it proves nothing. It is true that no certificate is, in and of itself, proof that the holder is a successful teacher. But the fact that a certain kind of evidence is not absolutely conclusive is hardly a satisfactory reason for rejecting all evidence.

The plan proposed would conduce to a speedy elevation of the average grade of qualifications. It would at once introduce and make effective the element of generous ambition and rivalry: it would enlist the stimulus of a worthy personal pride not to *remain* in the lowest ranks of the profession. It would sift the chaff from the wheat, and create a public sentiment which would soon sweep the former from the precincts of our common schools. We all know the force of the principle of promotion, for merit, among the officers of the army and navy: that principle will be no less active when applied to the leaders of the educational host. As in school none but drones and dullards are *willing* to be always at the foot of the class, so with teachers, none who have the genuine pride and spirit would long *consent* to have only a six-months certificate. They might accept such a one *at first*, without the least compromise of self-respect or dignity; but they would feel that no effort to achieve, as soon as possible, a higher grade could be neglected without dishonor. The grading system, in a word, would subsidize the strength of that instinctive impulse of our nature which feels the spur of encouragement and responds to the influence of appreciative and discriminating regard. It may be true that the noblest natures will toil on and press on with no such encouragement, impelled only by the lofty aims and unflinching inspiration of their own hearts. It matters not. It still remains an axiom of average humanity that innocent men are not, *because* innocent, willing to wear the ball and chain and fellowship with felons, and that the best and strongest men of a profession are not flattered by the obliteration of every barrier which separates them in the public esteem from the poorest and weakest.

The salutary influences upon the position and character of teachers which are anticipated as the result of grading county certificates will, it is believed, be strengthened and accelerated by the inauguration of the proposed plan of State Certificates or Diplomas. Under the present system the most that any teacher in our common schools can hope for is a license to teach in one county for two years. No matter what his age, talent, experience, or skill, he can obtain nothing higher

than this. He may have added to the finest natural abilities and teaching powers a thorough course of general training in the best literary institutions in the country, and an equally complete professional training in the normal school; he may have grown gray in the service, and been revered by thousands of grateful pupils whom he had clothed with power and guided to usefulness and honor: all this might be true, and yet, if such a man, with his well-earned honors thick about him, with the living trophies of his genius and skill scattered every where, should come to Illinois, he could not teach in the obscurest district to be found in the darkest corner of the State without submitting to an *examination* and obtaining a certificate of *qualifications* to teach a common school! And if in two years he, the light and strength of a hundred schools, should wish to teach in an adjoining county, he must again be examined and licensed, and so on for each of the one hundred and two counties of the State. Each county-line strips him of his learning, immunities, and honors, as the whirlwind strips the tree of its foliage; and he no sooner crosses it than he must stand naked and trembling before a new tribunal, to be graciously invested again with that of which he had so suddenly been dispossessed! Is it so with lawyers, doctors, ministers? Must an attorney have as many licenses in his pocket as there are counties in his circuit, and must these be renewed every two years? Does a physician's diploma lose its virtue at a county-line, or will the law declare he shall have no fees if he visits a patient across the line? Does a clergyman lose his theology or require a fresh licensure when he changes his parish?

It is not proposed to extend or in any manner disturb the jurisdiction of commissioners or the validity of the certificates issued by them, but to provide for a new class of certificates: not to enlarge the powers of existing tribunals, but to erect a new one, with authority to act in certain cases and within prescribed limits. It has long been the opinion of the most intelligent friends of common schools in the State that some such plan as the one suggested would be of immediate and lasting benefit. The subject has been repeatedly considered by the teachers of the State in our Association. The measure is needed to give harmony and completeness to all those instrumentalities of the system which pertain to teachers. It would infuse new life through the rank and file of our whole educational force. It would kindle a fire that would animate the coldest and dull-est. Competition for the glittering prize of a State Diploma would create an enthusiasm for the attainment of a higher standard of scholarship and skill in teaching, which would penetrate all ranks and classes of the profession. It is believed that it would be a substantial and progressive step toward the realization of such a practical recognition of the claims of the teacher's vocation to be ranked among the distinct and well-defined professions as has long been anticipated and hopefully labored for. But the conditions of receiving this high distinction must, to give it the requisite value when conferred, be such as *peremptorily* to exclude every thing but the very highest merit in actual teaching as well as in scholarship; and these conditions, when prescribed, must be adhered to by the Board of Examiners with uncompromising rigor. If the value of the Diploma should be cheapened by lowering the standard of qualifications necessary to secure it, the injury to the cause would be fully commensurate with the benefit if the true policy is pursued. This vital point is duly protected in the provisions of the plan proposed. The amendment will not disturb a single important feature of the present law; it will not involve the outlay of a dollar of the public money; it will produce the most beneficial and lasting results; and it is earnestly desired by the teachers and school officers of the State. For these reasons it is submitted to your thoughtful attention.

Further amend Sec. 50—requiring school commissioners to keep a careful record of all the candidates to whom they issue certificates, noting the date of examination, name, sex and age of candidate, and the grade of the certificate granted.

VI. Section 52. Strike out the *Proviso*. [The *proviso* allows, under certain circumstances, the issue of a teacher's certificate to persons who can not pass an examination in all the branches of study required by the law.]

It is believed that if satisfactory reasons ever existed for such a proviso they

no longer exist. The testimony is conclusive that the effect of the proviso is bad; that it encourages persons to apply for schools who are utterly and notoriously unworthy and incompetent; that it depresses still lower a standard that never was too high. The law should aim to elevate, not degrade—to bring public sentiment to its own standard, not make concessions to an inferior one. It is doubtful whether the certificate required in the proviso has been *necessary* in a single district of the State for more than a year past. There certainly has not been a week for more than a twelvemonth when I could not have referred parties to at least a score of teachers 'competent to teach the branches required by this act'. There are good teachers (*comparatively*, I mean) for those who really desire the services of such.

Further amend this section by providing that when teachers, with the consent of the directors, attend Institutes held in their own county they shall not lose the time.

VII. Section 53. Change form of schedule so that the whole number of scholars, whole number of males, whole number of females, age of each pupil, average attendance, and other matters required by law to be reported by the township treasurers, shall be faithfully registered by the teacher.

This will take but a few moments of the teacher's time, while it will greatly facilitate the work of the Trustees and Treasurer.

VIII. Section 72. Substitute, in the first clause, the word *including* for the words 'except upon'.

The management of the funds upon which treasurers receive commissions is very easy and simple compared with that of the fund raised by district tax, upon which no percentage is allowed by law. Treasurers are pressed by the directors for the taxes levied; they apply to the collectors, who are only able to pay a part; entries must be made of each payment under the proper head: again and again the districts call for their money, and as often the treasurer urges the collector, going often from ten to twenty miles to see him. At last the whole amount called for by the certificate of the county clerk is paid over EXCEPT the delinquent taxes! But in most cases the whole sum due the township is paid over by the collector, with no regard whatever to the *separate amounts due the several districts*. Of course, without access to the books of the collector, the treasurer can not tell with what part of the aggregate delinquency of the township to charge each individual district. Then, instead of paying over the whole at once to the districts, and balancing his accounts, he must honor all legal orders, no matter how many, nor whether for one dollar or five hundred. When at length the last dollar is drawn and his accounts with the districts are balanced, it is submitted whether the treasurer has not earned two per cent. of the money? It is therefore recommended that township treasurers receive a uniform commission of two per cent. upon all sums paid out or loaned by them, *including* moneys raised by virtue of any district tax.

The following suggestions were prepared after the preceding had been put to press:

IX. Sections 7 and 36. In Sec. 36 omit items 2, 3, 4 and 5, now required to be reported to school commissioners by the trustees, and harmonize the requirements of the two sections.

It is difficult to see what practical purpose can be subserved by knowing how many schools have been taught 'by male and female teachers at the same time', at 'different times', etc., etc., while many items of real importance are omitted. A portion of the 7th section, relating to the distribution of books, etc., is not in harmony with other provisions of the present law.

X. Section 42. Change the last word of the third line of this section from 'September' to 'August'. Require the clerk of each board of directors to submit his official records to the township treasurer for inspection on the first Mondays of April and October. If the records are not kept in a suitable 'book provided for the purpose', as required by law; or if they are not kept in a correct, orderly and reliable manner, the delinquent clerk shall be liable to a fine of five dollars for each offense: suit to be brought by the school commissioner on information cer-

tified by the township treasurer. The fine when collected shall be paid to the township treasurer for the use of the district concerned. Make it the express duty of the remaining director or directors to order a special election to fill vacancies as soon as practicable after such vacancies occur. Add proviso, similar to that in Section 25.

Teachers are usually appointed, and the policy of the school for the ensuing year marked out, prior to the beginning of September, at which time the election of directors is now held. If the organization of the school is deferred till after the election, the time remaining before the autumn term should commence is too brief to insure a wise selection of teachers and a prudent arrangement of plans for the year. If, on the other hand, the business for the ensuing school-year is all transacted by the old board, there is always a *liability* of electing new directors who will inaugurate a system of measures and policy adverse to those contemplated or established by the retiring board—from which confusion and difficulty would ensue. The same objections apply to the subject of district taxation. If the estimates are not made and the certificates returned to the county clerks until after the election of the new board, then the organization of the new board, the estimates for the year, the question of extending schools beyond six months, the preparation of the list of tax-payers, the determination and certificate of the rate to be levied, must all be crowded into the short space of one week; by which the probabilities of hasty, ill-considered or inadequate measures are greatly multiplied, and the danger is incurred of failing to make returns to the county clerk within the time specified in the 44th section of the Act. While, as before, if these duties are performed by the retiring board, the views of those who fix the rate of assessment and of those who receive and disburse the money will be likely to clash. The liability to such conflict of opinion and policy is greatly lessened, it is true, under the present admirable method of choosing but one new director annually. But when directors differ in sentiment, the accession of a single new member *may*, obviously, reverse the policy previously pursued, even under the present system. It is thought that the proposed change will tend to secure greater harmony of action and to locate more justly the responsibility of success or failure. The first Monday in August is suggested because, as a general rule, the summer schools are then closed, while those of autumn are not begun.

Although the directors are required to appoint a clerk 'who shall keep a record of all the official acts of the board in a book provided for the purpose', the neglect of this duty is so general, and the attendant evils so great, that some remedy is urgently needed. It is believed that nothing deserving the name of 'a book' or 'a record' is to be found among the archives of at least one-third of the districts of the State. This causes great confusion in the general and financial business of the districts, and often leads to litigation and pecuniary loss. The want of reliable data, often of any data at all, in the books of the directors, renders it impossible for the township treasurers to make out accurate reports of many of those statistics which relate to the districts. Perceiving this wide-spread neglect and seeking to remedy it, early in 1859 I prepared with much care a 'District School Record', specifically adapted to the financial, educational and general business interests of the district, with printed heading and forms for each separate department, and earnestly commended its use. A large number of districts have adopted it: and from none of these are complaints heard of ill-kept records. But as this department has no authority to *require* the directors to adopt the 'Record', or any other suitable book, the evil still continues. I am not entirely satisfied with the proposed amendments, but they may serve to suggest something better. The subject is believed to be worthy the notice of the Legislature, and is left to their wisdom.

It is worthy of remark that the school-law contains no direct provision for special elections to fill vacancies in the the Board of Directors. The subject is only noticed incidentally in the 42d section. The right to order such elections has been inferred and exercised, but it would be better, it is thought, to remove all ambiguity and doubt by conferring the right and imposing the duty in express terms.

The addition of a proviso to this section, similar to that in section 25, would

afford an easy mode of relief from many vexatious and embarrassing questions connected with the election of directors.

I have thus hinted at a few points in which the working of the law may, it is thought, be improved without changing in the least the order of the sections, or disturbing any fundamental provision of the present Act. Elaboration of details has in no instance been attempted, but only an outline of the provisions to be embraced in the amendatory act, should the Legislature consider it expedient to pass such a one. It is proper to add that the views embraced in the changes here proposed were all submitted to the State Teachers' Association at its recent session in Quincy, and received the cordial and unanimous approval of that body, composed of the most intelligent, earnest and experienced teachers and educational men of the State. The whole subject is left to the wisdom of the Legislature, not doubting that it will receive the attention due to its importance.

The amendments passed by the last General Assembly have proved eminently judicious and salutary. The change in the tenure of office of directors from one to three years, and from the election of three to the election of one director annually, has been received, so far as I am informed, with universal commendation, and the beneficial results have more than equaled the expectations of the friends of the amendment.

Some diversity of opinion exists respecting the modes of distributing the public money as prescribed in the 16th, 34th and 70th sections. But no principle of apportionment can be devised which will not be open to objection in particular cases. It would be difficult, it is believed, to adopt methods less liable, *upon the whole*, to well-founded complaints of unfairness and inequality than those now provided by law. If the principle laid down in the 70th section, by which the Auditor is governed in his dividends to counties, should be so changed as to entitle each county to receive what it pays, a corresponding change might logically be demanded in the 16th and 34th sections, and the fundamental idea of the whole system would be abandoned; it would at once cease to be in any just sense a *State* system. Again, the rule governing the Auditor remaining unchanged, if the principle of the 34th section, which bases the apportionment of one-half upon the attendance certified in the schedules, should be abandoned, the inducements to the maintenance of full schools would be taken from the law, and the beneficent purpose of the Legislature would be in danger of at least partial defeat. The ground upon which a modification of the 70th section is urged will lose much of its strength if the Legislature should adopt some mode of equalizing the assessments of property throughout the State. Considerations of a strictly educational character, as well as of manifest public utility and justice, warrant me, therefore, in renewing the recommendation of my predecessor, that measures be taken by the present General Assembly to remove the notorious inequality in the valuation of property in the different counties of the State. For these and many other reasons, which the limits of this report will not permit me to state, I would express the earnest conviction that the principles embraced in the sections referred to should not be disturbed.

The remainder of the body of Mr. Bateman's Report consists principally of three treatises of considerable length, of great importance in respect to their several subjects, and of forcible style of presentation, on the themes 'Teachers' Institutes', 'Primary Instruction', and 'School Architecture'. We hope that they may be read and heedfully pondered by thousands of influential men in our State: for want of thought upon two of these themes every school in the land is suffering this day. The last part of the report treats of the Normal University, and gives the reports of the Board of Education and of the Principal. But our space for extracts is exhausted.

EDITORS' TABLE.

THE STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—We give a large share of our space this month to a report of the proceedings of the annual meeting of the Teachers' Association. The session itself was interesting, though unfortunately brief; it was both shortened in duration and diminished in attendance by the coincidence of several unfortunate circumstances. It was soon found that members living elsewhere than on the lines of the Great Western and the Chicago and Quincy Railroads could not get home before Sunday unless they should leave the city on Friday morning: in consequence, the proceedings were rather hurried, and our friends at Quincy were not a little disappointed in the departure on Friday of at least half of those in attendance, so that there was but a small representation of the teachers at the social entertainment on Friday evening.

We give place on another page to the comments of our junior upon the session, its character, and incidents. Among the unreported incidents was the presence of Judge Army, of Kansas, who was one of the earlier members of the Association, and who told of his standing to keep the door locked to detain some twenty men long enough to perfect an organization.

The 'sociable' on Friday evening was well attended by citizens of Quincy, and was to us a very pleasant gathering. After a couple of hours spent in conversation, we were invited to the supper-room, where tables abundantly supplied and tastefully spread testified to the liberal hospitality and skillful labors of the ladies and gentlemen who provided and arranged the supper. Upon our return to the main hall we were further entertained with the offering of sentiments followed by brief speeches from members of the Association and from citizens, which held us till a late hour. No reporter attempted to catch the spirit of the time and embalm it for readers, and we will not give now the toasts of the occasion, since we can not add the flashes of wit and flow of sentiment which accompanied them.

The *Quincy Whig* and the *Chicago Post* had reporters present at the session: we are told that the other paper published at Quincy did not even notice the meeting.

MR. BATEMAN'S REPORT.—Want of space compels us to forego all comment upon this document. Gov. Yates urges upon the Legislature a careful attention to all the points made by it. The House of Representatives ordered only 10,000 copies printed; a number which would not much more than supply each board of school-directors in the State with one copy, while it ought to be placed in the hands of every school-officer in Illinois, and of thousands of its citizens.

SCHOOL FOR IDIOTS.—Gov. Yates repeats the recommendation of Gov. Bissell, and asks the Legislature to establish such a school. He says that there are 1600 idiots in Illinois, and that one-third of them are fit subjects for training.

PRIZE ESSAY ON 'THE DICTIONARY IN SCHOOL'.—We offer a copy of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, on fine sized and calendered paper, in English calf binding, as a premium for the best Essay on the 'Importance of the Dictionary in the School-room'; on its more general use, not only as indispensable to a correct knowledge and use of language, but in relation to all the studies of the school,—grammar, arithmetic, reading, spelling, composition, etc., and presenting the advantage to each pupil of being possessed of a suitable school-dictionary of his own.

The essays are to be submitted to the editor of this journal, or to a committee chosen by him; not to exceed six pages of the journal: the prize essay to be published in the *Teacher*; and any others offered may be published, at the discretion of the editor, giving or withholding the author's name, at the author's desire, except in the case of the prize essay, where the name is to be given. Essays to be sent in by the first of March. It is desired that partisan ground be not taken in regard to any particular dictionary.

MATHEMATICAL.—Our Mathematical gives way this month to Mr. Bateman and the Association. We take pleasure in naming to our readers as editor of our mathematical pages Mr. W. S. KELLY, of Ottawa, who had charge of that department after the June number of our last volume. Correspondents who offer questions or solutions may address them directly to Mr. Kelly, or to the principal editor, at pleasure.

MR. DUPEE favors us with a promise to contribute to our pages this year. From the chair of the Principal of the High School at Chicago he passed again into the position of a pupil, at the Cambridge Law-School; but we gladly believe that his devotion to Themis will not cause him to forget his former labors and the cause to which they were given.

ASSOCIATION ESSAYS.—Miss Manning's Essay is kindly granted for our pages, and will appear at our best opportunity. We have also the essay prepared (but not presented) by Mr. Davis, of Sterling, and have the promise of Mr. Gow's lecture on Natural History.

NORMAL UNIVERSITY.—A formal dedication of the University building to the purposes for which it was built is to take place on the 24th instant. The Legislature has accepted an invitation to be present, and Gov. Yates has been invited to deliver the address.

GOV. YATES.—Illinois has a new Governor. Richard Yates is one of the two who composed the first class that graduated at Illinois College, Jacksonville, in 1835: we have had the pleasure of acquaintance with him since about twenty years ago, and know that the cause of liberal education and free schools will have an earnest and faithful friend in the chief executive officer of Illinois for the next four years.

PEDAGOGUE.—At an examination in Ohio a candidate for a teacher's certificate defined pedagogue thus: 'An unruly person; one who thinks too highly of himself.'

LOOMIS.—Prof. Elias Loomis has been elected Professor of Natural Philosophy and Astronomy in Yale College.

THE MEETING AT QUINCY.—We have attended another meeting of the State Association, and look back to see what it has been and note some incidents of our absence from the school-room. The recent session was not as fully attended as some previous meetings, but we think it was by no means the least valuable meeting yet held. We shall not detail the work of the occasion; that will be found in the records. We had two points of value which alone would save the credit of this session from inferiority. These were Hon. N. Bateman's statement of plans with its indorsement by the Association, and the address of Prof. Welch with the zeal awakened and knowledge given by it. Such views as his have long been in print, but few have seen them, and fewer still have accepted them as practical. We must refer the reader to the address itself as it will appear hereafter in our pages for knowledge of what it was.

We were much disappointed in the absence of several who were to have addressed us or taken other part. Some of the absences not being deemed necessary, a resolution was unanimously passed not very flattering to delinquents. The Treasurer was also absent and no report was on hand from him. The Association did not deem it best to have an investigation committee as is the way with our naughty Congress boys, but, supposing the Treasurer providentially detained, simply directed the new Treasurer to settle with him.

There was a remarkable harmony and unanimity in all the proceedings. There were a few things that might have been done better: however, there is so much improvement from year to year in some things that we will specify only the meanness of two or three individuals who take the privileges of membership without becoming members. The names are known of some who did this at Ottawa, and of one at least who did so at Quincy. This matter met a public rebuke at Quincy, but not every *one* took the hint. Of course such fellows are not of us; but the people who entertain them will charge their low breeding upon our profession, for it is hardly possible for one to hold the place of a gentleman in other respects who neglects such a duty as this. We hope that that matter will be provided for another year, so as to *spot* such gentlemen publicly.

The subject of Graded Schools came up in a way that elicited some surprise if nothing more. We spoke of a place where gradation was made by size, then by family, then by territory; and were strongly urged to name it, with hints that we had told rather a fishy story. After the exercises, we were taken to task by some parties for calling up the facts in regard to a certain place, while we did not previously know that such facts were true of it! At the proper time and place we can now name *two* places instead of one where such things have been and are done.

A plan for a school-house by W. H. Haskell (after which a house has been erected at Canton to accommodate 600 pupils) deservedly received much attention and commendation.

The Quincy people had planned a social entertainment from which we were obliged to be absent, leaving our senior to do justice to it. We had opportunity to see a little how far the rich city of Quincy was behind in educational matters. She is deeply in debt for railroads, which embarrasses school interests. There are noble men and true at work there, but there is room for more if the people will do their part. Several private and denominational schools contribute their aid to fill the want left by the low condition of public schools.

We found a report of financial embarrassment in the experience of many a teacher, from the one in a country district to the head of a city school of 600 pupils. We stated in 1857 that the schools would be the last to feel the pressure and the last to recover from it. Men at first deemed their calamities temporary, and hoping soon to be over them did not at first retrench those expenses which are voted upon once in a year. Now that they do save on these as well as on others, they will be unwilling to vote liberally for public matters till they feel that their affairs are in much better shape. When they feel that they can fulfill their private obligations they will again be willing to tax themselves for public interests. Such crises as we have had in money matters tend to make men examine more closely what they pay their money for; and it may be that this was an influence in making the recent session so free from impractical theorizing, and so marked by sound opinions in regard to real work. There was some vamping, some spread-eagle oratory; but only enough to make the practical and the true show the better by the contrast. Some curious incidents occurred—curious to those who knew all the circumstances. A person was very prominent in indorsing the *natural* mode of teaching, whose friends think his school-room work decidedly artificial. Other curiosities were exhibited in the discussion on Graded Schools, and we noticed a speaker urgent for moral training who was for years, and till his friends were outvoted, at the head of a system from which the Bible was excluded. That may have made the necessity of moral training clearer to his mind.

B.

IOWA SCHOOL JOURNAL.—We are glad to see this journal revived in a new form, under the editorship of the Secretary of the State Board of Education, Thomas H. Benton, jr.

SYRACUSE, N.Y.—This city uses phonetic books in *all* its public schools as means of teaching to read the common print. The experiment has been tried there some years.

CHARLES KINGSLEY preached lately in a small village in Bedfordshire where his fame was not altogether unknown: the county paper, noticing the event, says that the intelligent members of the congregation were amazed at the illiterate tone of the preacher, and that he showed woeful ignorance and narrow-mindedness!

MACAULAY'S ESSAYS are published lately by Sheldon & Co. in a fine edition, in six octavo volumes, from the Riverside Press. They announce it as the only complete edition published in America.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

We thank our correspondents in this department for their favors, and, like Oliver Twist, ask for more. Bring here such questions as are constantly occurring in the school-room and for which you wish an answer: and if some body asks a question that you are confident you can answer, let us hear your reply. Perhaps questions

may be asked that none can answer; but that should not alarm us: does any one among us profess to know enough to answer every thing that may be asked?

ANSWERS.—*Query 19* (p. 431, Vol. VI). ‘Why is Southern Illinois called Egypt?’ I have never learned when and where the use of this term originated. Some of the inhabitants of the region named say that it was first used when in a time of scarcity ‘there was corn in Egypt’, and that the fertility of the soil was denoted by the name; but the universal usage of the name indicates that it is meant to refer to the land of ‘thick darkness’, on account of the imputed ignorance of the people. I have in more than one instance known the name to be applied locally to settlements notorious in their own vicinity for moral and intellectual darkness.

BERTRAM.

NEW QUERIES.—27. Why do the leaves of the forest, in autumn, turn red, yellow, brown, etc.?

TYRO.

28. How is the atmosphere constantly replenished with oxygen?

TYRO.

29. What philosophical reasons can be given for the tubular formation of the bones of animals of every species, as well as the stalks of numerous species of vegetables?

TYRO.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

BOOK-KEEPING. By Bryant & Stratton. Published by Ivison, Phinney & Co., New York, and S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago.

The High-School edition of this work lies before us. In typographical execution it is unsurpassed. From the time we have had to examine it, we deem it a valuable work. Much is in it not found in the ordinary books on book-keeping. The ruling of pages is done with red ink, as in books in actual account use, which adds to the attractiveness of the book's appearance. Price \$1.75; accompanying blanks, 50 cents.

PRONOUNCING SPELLING-BOOK. By J. E. Worcester. Boston: Swan, Brewer & Tileston.

We shall leave the point of Worcesterian modes of spelling and pronunciation out of account in our notice of this book. Based on the same principles as the Dictionary of the same author, it will have the same friends and objectors to it on those grounds. These points aside, we see some points to commend strongly. The arrangement of the book we like. A large proportion of it is made up of dictation exercises. Five pages are occupied by monosyllables with no silent letter. Rules for spelling are given quite at length. Rules for syllabication, also, are given, with much else which is rarely found in spelling-books, but is to be found scattered in grammars, dictionaries, and other books only irregularly used as aids in spelling. No teacher who prefers the Worcester Dictionary can fail to like this spelling-book; and it would be valuable to any teacher, in presenting matter and arrangements that would be convenient for school-room use.

ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

FEBRUARY, 1861.

NUMBER 2.

PRIMARY TEACHING.*

THE object of Education is three-fold: to develop mankind intellectually, physically, and morally; and as the rudiments of a science are the basis on which it rests, so the primary must be the most important of all the grades in a classified school. Hand-books of theory and practice leave little to be acquired in the art of tuition for advanced classes; but the primary teacher if she turns to hand-books for guidance finds very soon that there is very little corn through the mass of husks and shells. The children that enter the primary schools, at least in cities, are not infants; in their five years of home life they have acquired many facts and curious half-formed ideas; they know much that the world takes little cognizance of in its maturity, but which the world in its infancy thought as stupendous as they. If they have had good home associations, they are innocent, gleeful, and full of restless life; if kindness has encircled them from infancy, they are frank and docile; if, as is, alas! too often the case, penury, neglect, or harshness, was their inheritance, they come with the experience of a life that has already roughly estimated the worth of humanity, and tasted its bitterness and injustice crowded into their childhood years.

Nothing can be more absurd than the custom of requiring studiousness from children in a primary school: absurd from its patent folly and cruel from its terrible deprivation. Recently in Chicago a great improvement has been introduced of dismissing primary classes as soon as they have recited; formerly little children there were most exemplary martyrs to patience. For the long six hours of a summer's

* An Essay by Miss AGNES M. MANNING, of Chicago; read at the State Teachers' Association at Quincy, December, 1860.

school-day they sat quiet and upright, with half-sleepy eyes vacantly fixed on the flat, dull walls, or the weary alphabetic characters before them. The summer's sun might shoot in long lines of light athwart these walls, telling of grand skies, liberty, and the twitter of birds; the lazy summer day with its soft grass and wealth of prairie flowers, its low murmurs and healthful breezes, was wasting away, and the poor little prisoners learning but one lesson, better never learned by the human heart—apathy. It is an unnatural and cruel despotism, originating with parents themselves, that forces the enactment of such rules; one hour in the school-room is quite sufficient, and much more effective for all purposes of Education than the wearying process so much in vogue.

Again, it is considered essential that the upper departments should be supplied with maps, globes, and all the necessary apparatus; but I never heard of a western primary school furnished with the pictures, charts and specimens indispensable to them. The teacher that has not force enough of character to mould turbulent boys and girls of fourteen, who has not much aptitude either for imbibing or imparting knowledge, is too often consigned to the lower classes, as if the fresh, inquiring spirit of childhood and stupidity were at all synonymous. Hopeless mediocrity may get along in grades that do not wholly depend on the instructor, but hopeless mediocrity is fatal to those to whom the teacher is the text-book. Tact, talent, and a most liberal education, are requisite for the primary teacher of all others. One may teach the formulæ of science with tolerable success not having much love for it, and the principles of rhetoric and books without being very literary in one's tastes; but one can not amass the miscellaneous stock of knowledge indispensable to the primary teacher; one can not inculcate through a child's restless nature deep love for the true in life and science, without having strong tendencies for general literature, and large sympathies for art. There are many who have peculiar gifts for imparting and simplifying knowledge, under whose tuition the driest studies wear fresh and pleasant aspects; who bring, as it were, warmth and light into cold and dusky rooms. Let the primary schools secure such teachers when they can; let the school-room have an easy atmosphere of diligence and enjoyment; let vigorous physical exercises and merry songs vary the recitations; cover the walls with illustrations from natural and political history; fill cabinets with specimens of mineral and vegetable productions, and find what an excellence these schools may attain!

Object-lessons, which are an invaluable auxiliary, are apt to be made wearisome and unprofitable through too much time employed in

them, and definitions hazy from 'learned length'. Their purpose is best accomplished by making them the basis of all recitations in reading, where the labor of acquiring words is agreeably diversified by whatever they may signify and suggest.

Though long lessons and close studiousness be ignored, in no department should more prompt attention be required. First impressions are invaluable; the child that learns to lounge, to indulge in abstraction during his short recitations, to answer in a feeble and indifferent tone, to put off a crooked side to his house because it is too much trouble to rub out and draw it straight, is acquiring habits that future years may fail to eradicate. We must remember that, if the old theory 'all work and no play' was bad for Jack, the maxim reversed would be very injurious to that individual likewise. We must teach him that though life is not a flinty mountain-track for human feet when they take the zigzag path betimes, but a pleasant journey under blue skies and shining landscapes, it yet requires, essentially, industry and perseverance to accomplish it well. 'Perseverance is genius': the great men, the scholars of all ages, have ever been indefatigable workers. It is a beautiful thought that the statue lies in the quarry-block, but it takes skilled artisans and much labor to find it. The spirit of industry, then, should be faithfully inculcated; work not much, and never tedious, but still *work*.

Drawing opens up a wide field for cultivating a child's faculties of observation, imitation, and love of the beautiful. If they have objects on the wall to copy, they will not soon grow restless. I have known very small children enlarge and make good landscapes on their slates from the common wood-cuts in Sanders's Primer or First Reader. Even the rudest art gives to the human mind vast proofs of the symmetry and perfection of Nature; splendid models lie otherwise unheeded about us; we give but a passing attention to the gnarled trunks, the thick foliage, the pebbles glistening through the brook, until we come to represent them; and then we find new beauties in every combination. As Ruskin says: "If we only try to outline a piece of the calm sky, as it looks to us, and through admiring its wonderful gradations come to reflect on the higher mystery beyond, it has taught us a lesson that will be with us through our lives!"

The love of the beautiful is not a characteristic of our age. Development has run its iron track heavily across all leisure. Walking is old-fogyish and very slow; so we have all taken to running. In educational matters we are running a hard race, crowding into four terms the work of ten, taking up more studies than we can master, and finishing by having admirably 'crammed' through the whole

'Gradgrind theory'. Art to us is a fine thing; but art, like the Czar and Heaven to the Russian serf, is too high and too far off; it exists in the Louvre, Dusseldorf, and National Galleries; and possibly in the Jarves collection. We follow, at its suggestions, dreamy landscapes and Tivolian sunsets, and quite forget the ultramarine dome, the massy clouds, and clear transparent ether, that leave Western skies unrivaled in their changing beauties!

We women do well to take deep interest in the subject of Education; it is a grand thing for us; it is the Alpha and Omega of all our hopes for the future; it is setting aside the supremacy of muscle and substituting that of mind. It has already introduced an age whose steam, commerce, and magnetic pulses, scatter the *debris* of old theories, old prejudices, and old wrongs, broadcast upon the turbulence of an improvement unexampled through the ages. It is doing much for us — this young giant of grasping thought and material utility. It is forcing us up from the dusky shadows of the Past into the clear light of a brilliant foreground. We have only to sit still, and be borne along by the current of events into a broad sea in which our fathers would only have thought us capable of drowning.

And yet, we may say that only with Joanna Baillie this epoch dawned with us. Like this great land we live in, we have no history: but yesterday the night of savage wildernesses and tread of savage feet fell upon these prairies; and but yesterday the history of woman was a dark page, with only here and there bright gleams, like transient starlights, revealing her existence!

Time was when a venerable dame collected her flock betimes in the morning, and initiated them into the mysteries of the horn-book at all hours until sunset; but then the good lady usually employed herself in domestic affairs meanwhile; and lazy boys and girls dragged off through the fields and made fishing excursions to the stream in the intervals of recitations. The 'spirit of the nineteenth century' has changed all this: the horn-book exists but as a curiosity of the past. Hot-pressed editions of clever books pass rapidly through children's hands. The child's brain is no longer filled with weird tales of ghost or goblin. Natural History flings down her stores of rare treasures to the youthful comprehension; Geography blends in her strange stories of foreign lands, men, and manners, and warps her great curiosities about the fresh enthusiasm of early imagination. History, too, by whose bright lamps strong men in former times considered themselves only qualified to be guided, brings down her long lines stretching from the misty unknown to the clear present, converging in one point, that great aims and good are ever the centre of permanent success in every

department of life, and telling her grand truths so plainly and simply that the merest child may understand them!

In this brief essay I do not propose to outline the true primary teacher. Whatever one takes much interest in one will generally do well. The Primary School requires Pestalozzian patience and versatility: it has its great cares and toils, but it has also its pleasures and rewards.

MY 'LOUD-SCHOOL' FRIEND.

In the earlier days of my teaching I was in a district 'out west' of the Mississippi. A leading man in the district, the owner of several negroes, had quite an idea of doing things in his own way, and in fact had shot a man once for an offense against his honor. (Fortunately he only wounded his man, and he recovered.) This man urged the teaching a 'loud school'. "My oldest daughter taught a loud school down on the Missouri bottom, and I never seen little fellows learn so in my life as they did; but," he continued, unintentionally knocking all the virtue out of it, "egad, I believe they forgot it about as quick."

Some may not know what a 'loud school' is. It belongs to a class of institutions once found on these western prairies, but now, I think, not found east of the Mississippi—at least I hope so. Every pupil studied his lesson at the top of his voice, so that you would know when you were within a quarter of a mile of such a school, even though it were hid in a dense thicket or behind a hill. The strong argument was that the beginners learned how to pronounce the lessons yet in the future for them by hearing the older ones pronounce. Rev. J. M. Peck used to tell of such a school which he found in Illinois when it was on the frontier. The advanced class was composed of three pupils, each of whom had a book different from the others as a reading-book. One of them had Sinbad the Sailor. Those who never saw any other than our best graded schools, with their good furniture, quiet study, and orderly succession of classes, will be unable to conceive of the advantages enjoyed by forty youngsters and oldsters strung on slabs running around the sides of a 16×20 log school-house, with a cracked ten-plate in the centre or a fire-place on one side, and with 'chinking' enough out to let in air to replenish the ever-exercised lungs, while all shouted forth in miraculous unison the

multiplication-table, A B C, Ba-ker, Cin-na-mon, the abbreviations, avoirdupois weight, and Murray's Grammar, interspersed with cries of 'Ouch', and 'Quit that', with sundry switchings and ear-pullings and shoutings by the teacher to make up any want of noise the pupils might overlook. Yet men still live who sigh for such schools.

You may imagine that the transition from translating the *Æneid* or *Livy* to a staid Professor with steady class-mates, who never *openly* made a great deal of noise in the world, would be apt to make some points uncongenial. But, like the Dick who called every thing 'seeing life', I aimed to make the best of it. Of course, our friend who advocated 'loud schools' could tell me a great deal about teaching, for *he* had taught a 'loud school' once himself, and knew all about it. Turning over some old papers to-night, I came upon some scraps of correspondence, reminding me of what then seemed one of the events of my life. And was n't it? To be sure, I was in those days in a by-spot, where locomotives did n't whistle, and my pay was not a thousand a year, and my pupils did n't number by hundreds. It would not be proclaimed in the papers that the Fairmount school had failed. Still, I was employed as their teacher. Our world was as big to us as though we had been in a three-story brick house, with a puffing locomotive and press in town (our presses run by steam now-a-days, which causes their *puffing*). Had I failed to mollify my 'loud-school' friend, who, peace to his memory, has been gone from worldly troubles for years past, I might have lost my place and left less of a good name behind me, at the time hereinafter referred to. I have been in close places many times since, but none of them ever exercised me more than did the occasion referred to when I received the first epistle below.

I will give you the notes, which sufficiently explain themselves, and turn again to my evening's work. All, save names and dates, is hereby certified to be genuine.

MR. THOMPSON

Dear Sir Sometime ago my son told me he wished to spell in the Dictionary I gave him one and he informs me that John Trainer wrote the name of some of Squire Phelps daughters name in it and then it was taken from him I have directed him to take his book And I think it would be well to make a rule that no scholar should interfere with anothers books paper pens or ink to keep down difficulties and particularly to keep their names out

FEBRUARY 4th 18—.

Respectfully yours

JASPER STREET.

[REPLY.]

MR. STREET:

Dear Sir—I received a note from you this morning in regard to a Dictionary which is in dispute between your son and Squire Phelps's girls. Your son

mentioned it to me some time ago, that is a week or so. I made inquiry as to the book, and, from what I then learned and since have learned, I suppose that your scholars brought two dictionaries to school, and that Squire Phelps's scholars also brought two: one of these four is missing; whose it is I do not consider myself able to judge, as the book or a book is claimed by both. I will therefore pay William for the Dictionary and let those keep the books who have them now. I do n't know what a dictionary costs. I have given William twenty-five cents; if that is not enough send it back, and I will get a new book at the earliest opportunity.

Yours truly,

SILAS THOMPSON.

FEBRUARY 4th, 18—.

By return *male* (boy) came the following; and he was ever after my fast friend while he lived:

MR. THOMPSON

Your return note renders me entire satisfaction on the condition that you take your 25 cts back. I see from your address that you neither wish trouble or any hard thoughts about it let the matter die

Respectfully yours

JASPER STREET.

FEBRUARY 5th 18—.

S. T.

THE HAPPY SCHOOL.

HARD by an ever-running brook,
Whose rugged banks far overlook
The rural districts fair;
Where birds of richest plumage sing,
And sweetest blossoms gently fling
Their fragrance to the air;

Where mighty oaks and elms so high,
With boughs outstretched in ether sky,
Seem rulers of the wood:
Here, clasped about with clust'ring vine,
Which ever o'er the roof did twine,
A neat white *school-house* stood.

'T was there some forty boys and girls,
With ruddy cheeks and silken curls,
And hearts unstained with sin,
Came, every morn, with books in hand—
A healthful, joyous, youthful band—
To rear that *germ* within.

Ah! lovely! lovely! is that glen,
But far *more* lovely was it then—

In days that now are gone :
The crystal, sparkling waters danced
O'er beds of limestone — on they pranced
Liks some gay bounding fawn.

And now I see the towering cliff,
The pond below, the merry skiff,
And there's the gray old mill ;
Where scholars, all in wonder bound,
Would stray to see the wheel roll round,
Till each had gazed his fill.

The *teacher* of that woodland crew —
A man some thirty, kind and true —
Was loved by one and all.
The youngsters seemed his dearest charge :
The girls and boys, the small and large,
Responded to his call

With willing hearts ; for each could read
The noble aim of ev'ry deed,
From those dark loving eyes.
He'd lead his scholars to the brook,
And stroll about the flow'ry nook,
Beneath the sunny skies ;

And talk to them in rev'rent tone,
Of Him that made this scented zone,
That man might feel his love ;
And then he'd point to yonder bower,
Where giant oaks and maples tower
Their leafy tops above,

And say: "Dear children, God doth rear
Those lofty trees, that we may fear
His omnipresent might ;
And thus our wayward hearts incline
Toward heavenly things, which far outshine
The orbs of day or night.

"The murmuring brook that glides along
Beneath our feet — how sweet its song !
How like the zephyr's sigh !
Hark ! hear ye not the sacred strain
Which, from its bosom, floats amain
To Him who reigns on high ?

"And e'en yon flinty, craggy ledge,
Uprising from the water's edge,

Seems breathing forth his praise.
 Those shelving rocks! how proud they stand!
 How tall, majestic, dark, and grand!
 We view them with amaze!

“Their solid fronts have long withstood,
 Here, in the depths of this old wood,
 The havoc sore of Time;
 Nor sweeping flood, nor howling storm,
 Since first shone out creation's morn,
 Hath moved that wall of lime.

“But here we find it huge and free,
 An emblem of eternity,
 Which fills the soul with awe,
 And bids us work, and watch, and pray,
 That we may dwell, through endless day,
 With them that keep the *Law*.”

'T was *thus* this teacher true did win
 His pupils from the paths of sin,
 And made their minds to roam
 'Mid nature's charms, on land and sea,
 Where waves the forest, hums the bee,
 Or where the breakers foam.

And so may *we*, my teacher friends,
 Rear up our charge to higher ends
 Than those we seek below.
 Just thoughts of God, with thankful heart
 To warm the soul — ah! these impart
 What earth can ne'er bestow.

E. J. UDELL.

THE ROD, AND THE NEED OF USING IT.

“A whip for the horse, a bridle for the ass, and a rod for the fool's back.”

Proverbs, xxvi : 3.

WHY has such a change been wrought in the government of our common schools within the last few years? Why do they in this respect so sadly differ from those in many countries, and regions of country, pronounced by us — *old foggy*? Do you wish to learn what it is that we so lament? Enter some district-school — little matter where — in the State. The first thing you notice, after you are once

seated, and the hubbub caused by the announcement from mouth to mouth of that wonder—a *visitor*—is over, is a sly whisper; a communication by slate and pencil, or some missile thrown, not far, but with unerring aim. In one corner of the room Susan is drawing a representation of some hideous monster on her slate, which is presently turned round for another to see. Both look and laugh—perhaps without a single strange thought at the freedom allowed them. Just now James punches John across the aisle, and the latter returns the compliment. At the same time one of the reciting class, more attentive than the rest, is standing to see the example on the board which the teacher explains, another places a well-crooked pin on his seat. While the other cases of mischief pass unnoticed, the last can not but attract the teacher's attention by the *start(l)ing* effect produced upon the afflicted scholar. "Who did that?" is demanded. No one knows. The offender has moved his seat. "Do not let me see it repeated" is the reproof of the unknown culprit,—and he does not let him *see* it repeated. Meanwhile, the studious but annoyed one determines that as the *teacher* does not 'repay', *he will*. And so it goes. Of those to whom this may appear overdrawn, I would ask but a little *careful* attention to such of our common schools as are favored by their visits, and I think that they will find more or less of the above applicable. To say that nearly all or even a majority of them are thus loosely ruled would, perhaps, be too much. But a minority, respectable in *numbers* at least, of those in this part of the Northwest are in pretty much such a state. And who, that has taken such an interest in our district schools as to visit them widely and frequently, will deny that laxity of authority and government is on the increase among us? Can we, then, claim great progress in perfecting common-school systems while such is the case? But the question here arises, Whence has arisen this misrule? We find, first, that the teacher is such merely for a time, probably; that he is in his place, not from the love of it, but from a pressure of outside circumstances. Consequently, *temporary profit* (if any) alone is sought for the scholars. He has not that love for his position and its duties that he should have. This, however, is not the chief cause of misrule. Suffer your mind to be carried back to the school-room in which you learned to read, to cipher, and—*be quiet, or be whipped*. What distinctive feature do you find here, as compared with the school you have just visited? *The ferule and the rod lie on the desk*. The teacher has his weapons, well-worn though they be; their appearance telling of faithful use, proportionately as does that of the school show its effect. Not a whisper is heard, nor a 'paper ball' thrown; for the remembrance of

past events' follows hard upon the sight of the master's stick. But, do you argue that this is an age of progress, that moral suasion has supplanted the use of the rod? Yes, this *is* an age of progress; but, as to the *benefits* resulting from this progressive step, you yourself may now judge. They strikingly remind me of the effect produced by the teaching of 'progressive doctrines' in certain religious denominations of extreme tendencies. Let us banish all desire for *such* progress, and do away with the *misuse*, at least, of moral suasion, and reinstate the *rod* in its old position of the teacher's 'right-hand man'; thus according with the precepts of a certain *old foggy* (does not this term *begin* to mean 'wise man'?) from whom the text above quoted is taken.

W. W. F.

TEACHERS' JOURNALS.

[THE following article is taken from that excellent journal, the *Rhode-Island Schoolmaster*. Like the calculations in the almanacs, it will answer both for Rhode Island and for States west of it, including Illinois.—ED.]

Teachers are said to be found in Rhode Island who take no educational paper, and who seldom read one. Their several objections will all, probably, be found among the following:

1. I can not afford it.
2. I have no time for reading.
3. I prefer other kinds of reading.
4. This kind of reading is unprofitable.

If, however, the last of these objections can be disproved, all the rest will fall to the ground by their own gravity. For, if the habitual reading of an educational periodical be of positive value to the teacher in his profession, then he can certainly 'afford it'; because, by making him more valuable as a teacher, it will increase his chances for a higher salary; hence, it will be good economy. Again, if such reading be of positive and professional value to the teacher, then he will gain 'time' instead of losing it by the practice, because he will teach the better for it, and can therefore better afford to sacrifice the time it requires in some other quarter. And, once more, whatever may be the teacher's 'preference' or taste in the choice of his reading, he undoubtedly ought to devote some time to such reading as will benefit him professionally; indeed, he will be sure in the end to prefer to do

it, because he will find his happiness in the duties of teaching so much enhanced and his burdens so sensibly lightened. Hence it is clear we have but one question to consider—that of the professional utility to the teacher, and to *every* teacher, of the habitual reading of some good educational magazine.

We claim for such papers the same relative position which the periodicals supported by other professions sustain. In medicine, in law, in theology, in criticism, in art, in polite literature, in the various departments of science, and in the practical arts, we find such publications; and we find, too, that they are indispensable to the promulgation of discoveries and inventions, and to the advancement of knowledge and art. We shall also find—with open eyes and ears—that no man, or woman, of any plausible pretensions to intelligence or to ardor in his own profession—except among teachers, we mean—fails, on any consideration, to be a subscriber to at least one professional periodical; or fails to claim the benefit of at least the presumption that he reads it. He considers it an advantage every way, and would as soon renounce all hope of improving in his profession, would about as soon throw away his tools and desert his office, and then expect to prosper, as to stop his magazine. However the fact may be accounted for, it is certainly a settled opinion that, in every calling which requires intelligence, thought, spirit, the periodical magazine is one appliance indispensable to any solid and permanent success.

Why is not the same thing equally true in the department of teaching? Does not the teacher, as much at least as others, need collision and friction with minds in kindred pursuits? Does he not need to keep up with the age, lest unawares he find himself superannuated in his own calling ere half his course be run? Does he not desire suggestions of new methods, new expedients, new applications of old principles, or new changes and variations that may be rung out on old chords? Does he fancy that his own mind, however gifted, will be permitted to originate *all* the good and beautiful thoughts which may enhance his usefulness in the school-room? Or, if nothing else, does he not need—and this we regard as altogether the most important consideration—the stimulus imparted, the vitalizing influence on mind and heart, which every earnest teacher is sure to realize from the inspiration of earnest thought and feeling, earnestly uttered by his fellow laborers in the same field? Are the toils of any profession more depressing and jading than of this? Are there any in which consultation, sympathy, encouragement, and frequent surveys of the field from new points of view, are more salutary?

We take the liberty, then, once more, to urge it upon all, especially

perhaps on every young and inexperienced teacher—and yet no less upon *all* who desire to improve themselves and to contribute to the improvement of their profession,—that they subscribe for and read regularly—or *irregularly* if they prefer it, but *actually*—at least *one* good educational journal. And if you are a Rhode Island teacher, let that *one* be *The R.I. Schoolmaster*. If it is not good enough, make it better. Access to its columns can easily be obtained, and nothing will be rejected on the ground that it is too good. If, therefore, you can contribute something better than is ordinarily found there, do it; the oftener the better; and we will try to profit by the example. And reflect that, as a teacher, you have no *right* meanly to monopolize your own valuable inventive powers. Give them to the profession. Secure a patent, if you will; but let the world have the benefit of them. Subscribe, and urge others to do the same; if not for *The Schoolmaster*, for something better, if possible; but, at all events, subscribe and read, not with a carping, fault-finding spirit, but frankly, good-naturedly, determined to extract some good from every thing; and you will be the better for it, you will better your school, better your salary, better your prospect of success and usefulness in life.

N. B. C.

A FEW THOUGHTS ON THE COURSE OF STUDY IN SCHOOLS.

I KNOW that many advocate several studies at a time, arguing that a variety is beneficial. I think it wrong to exact from a teacher so much excellence in the various branches taught, and at the same time load him down with so many different exercises a day. The increase of studies imposes more work, and infringes on reading and spelling and penmanship. This should not be: these last three studies should receive careful attention. If reading were taught as it should be, it would forego the study of grammar, as such, until maturer years, when the mind is more philosophic and better able and better prepared to comprehend the subject. Could I follow my own judgment, I would assign to each pupil a less number of studies, and give those assigned more attention. Reading can not be profitably taught without great use of the dictionary and books of reference; but the multiplication of studies cuts off this essential work.

I hope the day will come—glorious day for schools—when there will be a new curriculum of studies, when the teachers will not be

driven and worked to such a degree that they can not draw from their own wells, when they will search for the 'peculiar turn' of the pupil, when Mental Arithmetic will not be considered the only thing, nor *the* thing, which is necessary to fit a man for the counting-room, the bar, pulpit, and senate-house, and when educators will remember that children

" Want some other food to feed the mind
Than conjugated verbs and nouns declined."

Now their young heads are troubled with geography and fractions, drinking in from pure crystal springs of literature no nourishment, not at all informing themselves with the history of opinions, nor treasuring up facts of history to be interpreted in future years. I hope I shall not be misunderstood. I think the studies pursued in our schools are proper, such as should be attended to with diligence; but what I complain of is, they are made to engross all the time and energy of the child, while history and literature, with all their attractive beauties, are too often passed over with slight attention. The pupil is not made acquainted with noble historical characters and their noble deeds, and thus fired with a strong desire to emulate their excellent virtues so far as God has given him the ability.

I would commend to your notice the spelling in our schools. Much attention has been given to that branch, and the pupils, I think, have attained to great excellence in it. This excellence has been secured in a great measure, in my judgment, by requiring the pupils to spell their reading-lessons. They are thus led to spell intelligibly, and, day after day, review words which they might not otherwise remember. In this way children easily form the habit of attending to the orthography in their miscellaneous reading. In some of the schools this branch has been taught by writing, and in this connection much use has been made of the dictionary.

One of the most difficult things in school is, to make pupils understand the terms employed in our text-books. If any one will reflect a moment he will perceive that a large amount of the work in the school-room is defining terms. I care not what is said against the learning of rules and definitions, and committing to memory what is not, at the same time, understood; after all, defining is the business. The child is learning the meaning of words; and any teacher who neglects to studiously and carefully attend to this business will assuredly fail to make good thinkers. Many of the controversies which agitate the world rise from a misconception of the true import of words. The first question in grammar, and the last, calls for a definition. Such is the case in arithmetic. It will be found equally true in geog-

raphy; and it seems strange that some authors should so far forget their duty as to give such loose, and in some cases false, definitions. Many, too, which are not absolutely false, convey incorrect impressions. In view of this subject, I would suggest that there be in every school-room several copies of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. They would be of more utility than apparatus. I am happy to say that the Board has placed in every building a copy of this excellent work, but I can assure them that one copy for forty or fifty pupils is by no means an ample supply. There should also be in every one of our school-rooms a Biographical Dictionary, Lippincott's Gazetteer, with other books of reference. These books furnish knowledge which the teacher has not the time or ability to impart. The great work for the teacher to do is to point out the sources of knowledge.

From the Report (for 1860) of B. M. REYNOLDS, City Sup't., Rock Island, Ills.

YOUNG CHILDREN AT SCHOOL.

The question of cutting down the time spent in the public schools to one session per day is considerably discussed in Boston and New York. It is contended that six hours per day is too much time to devote to study and school exercises, and that more time is wanted for recreation and muscular development. Mr. Philbrick, the Superintendent of Schools in Boston, earnestly advocates the introduction of gymnastics into the schools, under regular instruction, as a means both of physical development and of relief from the tedium of constant study. The New-York Medical and Surgical Reporter, being appealed to for a professional opinion upon the subject, says, "One session, with a recess of half an hour, giving the children an opportunity to devote the afternoon to bodily recreation and preparatory study, is enough for all purposes; every hour spent in a second session only tends to cripple the children 'bodily and mentally'." As an opinion from intelligent medical men, who have devoted thought to the subject, this view of the matter is entitled to consideration. But the idea of a single daily session of the schools will not be likely to be popular outside of the large cities. There the lateness of the dinner-hour allows the morning session to be continued for four hours; but in the country, where noon is the dinner-hour, not over three hours can be spent in the school-room in the forenoon. Parents in the country would object to the proposed arrangement for another reason, which is really an im-

portant one to the majority of mothers — the extra care that would devolve upon them if the children were at home in the afternoon. And although the best interests of the children are first to be consulted in the arrangement of the school-sessions, the convenience and comfort of the parents are pretty sure to be influential considerations, and no change that adds to the burthens of the mothers will be adopted, however evidently desirable in itself.

But we do not believe that six hours per day is too much time for the older scholars to spend in the school-rooms. One-third at least of this time is devoted to reading, recitation, and general exercises, and not over four hours, not so much as that in most schools, is left for actual study. For the grammar schools, therefore, we see no good reason why the hours of study should be abbreviated. If it is desirable that gymnastics shall be scientifically taught in school, the half-hour of recess, morning and afternoon, might be devoted to that purpose. But boys who have from six to ten hours of out-door play in the twenty-four are in no special danger from five or six hours' confinement in school, especially as that confinement extends over but five days of the seven, and in many of the schools is very much broken up and relieved by music and other general and fancy exercises. Muscular development is undoubtedly essential to health; but in the new interest felt in it the thing is quite likely to engross more than its due share of attention. A school that does not allow and exact three or four hours per day of genuine, close study, can not begin to accomplish its first and legitimate object. We do not believe that the school-room can be transformed into a play-room without a neglect of mental discipline which will essentially dwarf the next generation. We go for proper attention to muscle; but we doubt whether it is worth while to make Blondins and Tom Hyers of the whole race.

In the primary schools the case is different. Children between the ages of five and ten require more physical movement; and application to study, except for brief intervals at a time, is a hardship and an injury to them. Perhaps in these schools it would be well to shorten the afternoon session to two hours. But what is most needed in the primary schools is a greater variety of exercises, and a combination of play and study in many of them, by which the attention of the children will be relieved. It is essential that there should be order and method in these schools, for the discipline the children get in these respects is quite as valuable as any thing they learn. But in exacting order respect must be had to the condition and wants of human nature in the gristle. Many teachers fret themselves day after day to no purpose in the attempt to keep a crowd of little ones quiet by the hour

together. The thing is mostly impossible, and so far as it is accomplished it is hurtful. What the primary schools most need is a variety of employments that will keep the attention of the children alive, with recesses and exercises in calisthenics and other forms of bodily activity frequent enough to prevent the weariness of sitting still, which is the most unpleasant feeling a child can experience. Our primary schools lack very generally in these respects. In fact little thought is given to them, and the routine of the lessons and the effort to maintain the discipline engross the whole attention of the teacher. In no portion of our educational system is there so much room for improvement, for the proper adaptation of means to ends, and the application of generally-acknowledged principles, as in the primary department. There is room here not only for thought, but for invention and the exercise of genius; and the teacher who shall succeed in creating a model primary school will have done a good and needful thing, and will deserve lasting renown. The school-committees can not be looked to for this improvement. They are generally unconscious of what is needed. The teachers must do it if it is done at all.

Springfield (Mass.) Republican.

THEODORE PARKER AS A WORKING MAN.

[THE following is from T. W. Higginson's article in the October *Atlantic Monthly*, on Theodore Parker:]

It is inevitable, in describing him, to characterize his life by its quantity. He belonged to the true race of giants in learning; he took in knowledge at every pore, and his desires were insatiable. Not, perhaps, precocious in boyhood—for it is not precocity to begin Latin at ten and Greek at eleven, to enter the Freshman class at twenty and the professional class at twenty-three,—he was equaled by few students in the tremendous rate at which he pursued every study when he once begun. With strong body and great constitutional industry, always acquiring and never forgetting, he was doubtless at the time of his death the most variously learned of living Americans, as well as one of the most prolific of orators and writers.

Why did Theodore Parker die? He died prematurely, worn out through this enormous activity—a warning as well as an example. To all appeals for moderation, during the later years of his life, he

had but one answer—that he had six generations of long-lived farmers behind him, and had their strength to draw upon. All his physical habits, except in this respect, were unexceptionable; he was abstemious in diet, but not ascetic, kept no unwholesome hours, tried no dangerous experiments, committing no excesses. But there is no man who can habitually study from twelve to eighteen hours a day (his friend, Mr. Clarke, contracts it from six to twelve, but I have Mr. Parker's own statement of the fact) without ultimate self-destruction. Nor was this the practice during his period of health alone, but he pushed it to the last moment; he continued in the pulpit long after a withdrawal was peremptorily prescribed for him; and when forbidden to leave home for lecturing, during the winter of 1858, he straightway prepared the most laborious literary works of his life, for delivery as lectures in the Fraternity course at Boston.

He worked thus, not from ambition, nor altogether from principle, but an immense craving for mental labor, which had become second nature to him. His great omnivorous hungry intellect must have constant food—new languages, new statistics, new historical investigations, new scientific discoveries, new system of Scriptural exegesis.

ERRORS IN SPEECH.

THE function of a critic of speech is one requiring care both as to what is allowed and as to what is disallowed; and errors are more frequently committed by forbidding what is allowable than by allowing what should be prohibited. Hypercriticism is more common than laxity. I rarely take up a Rhetoric or a Grammar, or even an article in a school journal on 'errors of speech', without finding attacks upon the idioms of our language; and directions are given which would deprive our mother-tongue of much of its force, beauty, and raciness, and substitute for them weakness and platitude.

Most of the writers who commit such hypercritical errors say as reason for their fault-finding that what they disapprove is not grammatical, or that is unphilosophical, or that it is vulgar. This last word when we meet it in a Rhetoric generally means nothing more than 'opposed to my personal whim': the author is looking about for examples to show his critical skill, and finding some very common expressions which are frequent in colloquial English and rare in the graver or soberer styles of book-English, he magnifies *his* sense of propriety and *his* ele-

gance of taste by setting them down in his list of words and phrases to be avoided. It is not a sufficient reason for condemning any word or expression that it is rarely found in books, or even that it was more frequently used in a former period of the language than now: still less is the mere whim of the individual critic a reasonable ground for sentence of exile against what may be found on the tongues of the people or on the leaves of the Bible.

In turning over the leaves of a volume of the *New-York Teacher*, issued a few years ago, I found some of these erroneous corrections under the title 'Errors in Speech'. I will copy the whole article, and then comment upon what is objectionable.

ERRORS IN SPEECH.—1. The verb *have* is often employed so that verbs and participles following it are unfortunately located; as in the expressions, 'Have the thing done', 'Have him perform it', and the like. Good grammarians can not approve this mode of employing this verb.

2. *If* for *though*. This practice is so general that I do not suppose any general reform will occur. 'He made as if he would go further' is a Biblical expression; but the term *though* instead of *if* would be more correct and elegant.

3. *If* for *whether*. This is equally general. '*If* he goes or not is small matter'—*whether* is more proper.

4. The so-called subjunctive form of the verb is unnecessary. Properly there is no subjunctive form, except what common grammarians term the potential mood. The conjunctions *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, *lest*, etc., should not be suffered to vary any form. There is no propriety of placing the plural form of a verb of the past tense, as of the verb *to be*, to a singular nominative, when prefixed by either of those conjunctions. The other departures from the analogy of the language are equally needless. We should always write as did Dr. Webster, 'if I am—if he is—if I was—if thou wast—if he was—if he has been', etc. A change in this respect would somewhat facilitate learning the verb, and at the same time aid to place our language, in this particular, upon a footing similar to other languages.

5. Possessive nouns and pronouns should not be placed before participles. The form of speech is unphilosophical, and incapable of justification. There can be no possession in the case. The expressions 'my doing the act', 'his dying', 'your pushing forward the enterprise', and the like, are solecisms.

A little reflection would satisfy most persons of the correctness of these remarks.

A. W.

The signature and some other indications lead me to suppose the writer to be a gentleman who is not unknown to readers of former volumes of the *Illinois Teacher*, and who is known to have extensive and varied knowledge and much versatility; but I know no personality in the case; I deal with the things thought and said, not with the thinker and sayer.

1. In the first paragraph no reason is given for not so employing *have*, except that verbs and participles following it are 'unfortunately located'. In a subsequent number of the *N.Y. Teacher* A. W. says that 'the expression is a violation of good usage', and 'incontrovertibly a solecism'. (*N.Y. Teacher*, September, 1856, p. 571.) Since the verbs and participles can not be *located* differently in the sentences without destroying the intended meaning, we must conclude that the objection is to the use of the verb *have* with an infinitive or participle after it, and with the meaning of *cause* or *make*. 'Have the thing done' when expressed in full is 'have the thing to be done', meaning 'cause the thing to be done'. Have him perform it=cause him to perform it. Perhaps A. W. objects to the omission of *to* and of *to be*; but he says he objects to this mode of employing the verb. The appeal must be made, then, to the usage of the language; and he admits in the place cited that 'hosts of authorities' sanction the usage in question. Of our leading grammarians, all who notice it approve it, so far as we can find: Brown and Fowler say nothing against it; Worcester gives it in his great quarto; and it has been constantly occurring in our language for at least two-and-a-half centuries. The New Testament contains examples in the following places, perhaps in others also. Luke i. 62; xix. 14; Acts ix. 6; xvi. 3; Rom. i. 13; xvi. 19; 1 Cor. vii. 32; xii. 1; 2 Cor. i. 8; 1 Thes. iv. 13; and Tim. ii. 4.

But A. W. says this form of expression is 'incontrovertibly a solecism'. Worcester says, "Modern grammarians designate by solecism any word or expression which does not agree with the established usage of writing or speaking. But as the customs change, that which at one time is considered a solecism may at another be regarded as correct language." I claim that a usage of writers of all ranks for 250 years at least, and its recognition by lexicographers and grammarians, including even the very critical Gould Brown, shows that now at least it is not — if it ever was — a solecism.

2. '*If* for *though*'. These words, if the current etymologies are correct, were originally so similar in meaning that we should not wonder at finding them still used as synonyms. There are popular errors in the use of them; and, singularly enough, A. W. defends an erroneous instance by finding fault with a correct one. I think that *though*

should never follow *as*, though I some times find *as though* slipping from my lips. The lexicographers say that *if* is a corrupted form of the imperative *give*, and when it introduces a proposition it means, *give* or *allow* this proposition to be true. Webster considers *though* to be the imperative of a verb; Horne Tooke says it is from an Anglo-Saxon verb *thafian*, meaning *grant* or *allow*. But in course of time these two words, originally the same in meaning, have become appropriated to different uses. *If* is properly used to introduce a *conditional* clause, and *though* to introduce a *concessive* clause. There are two uses of the conditional clause, one of which is in propositions hypothetical, and the other in propositions simply conditional, not hypothetical. MULLIGAN expresses their characteristics thus: "In the conditional proposition, the assertion depends upon the condition expressed in the accessory [or subordinate clause]. If this condition is granted, the assertion holds; but if not, it is void." Example: 'I can go, if I can have a horse'. This implies that I may go, and that I may have a horse. "In the hypothetical proposition the assertion is based upon a mere hypothesis, upon a supposed case which (it is generally implied by the nature of the expression) has no real existence; but on the supposition that this case had existed in the past, the assertion now admitted void would have been valid." Example: 'I would go, if I had a horse'. This implies that I have not a horse and can not go. Contrast now the proposition with a concession annexed. 'I will go, though I have no horse'. Here the assertion that I will go is absolute, without condition, and the clause introduced by *though* concedes that the lack of a horse is something opposed to my going.

Briefly, then, *IF* introduces a concession asked by the speaker as necessary to make his assertion or hypothesis valid; *THOUGH* introduces a concession granted by the speaker as a recognized deduction from the probability of his assertion, which, however, does not invalidate it. This is the simple principle upon which the current use of these two terms is founded, and by which we may try all questions of propriety. I admit that instances of variation may be found; but I only claim that when a critic is making corrections he should try sentences by the above principle.* We see, then, that when a lazy or willful boy says, 'I will not study my lesson, if my teacher *does* wish me to get it', he offends against the proprieties of the language as well as against the government of the school; he should use *though* instead of *if*, for the sake of good English, and not use the sentence when corrected, for

* For an excellent exposition of subordinate clauses of these kinds, I refer the reader to Mulligan's 'Structure of the English Language', §§ 137, 138.

the sake of good manners and good scholarship. The subordinate clause is intended to express a concession, not a condition.

But take A. W.'s instance: 'He made as if he would go further'. This is very elliptical, and we must fill it out, 'He made[movements] as [he would make movements] if he would go further'. We see at once that the clause introduced by *if* should *not* be introduced by *though*; for it is not a concession of the speaker respecting an improbability or opposition affecting the preceding clause, but it is a condition demanded by the speaker as essential to a supposed or hypothetical case. 'He made [movements]'—in what way? 'as [he would make movements]'—under what circumstances or upon what condition? 'if he would go further'. This instance affords explanation of all cases in which we can use the expression *as if*; and the reader can see at once why I said above that *though* should never follow *as*: for as soon as the ellipsis is removed by supplying the missing elements of the compound proposition, we see that the clause introduced by *if* is not of such a nature as to allow the use of the other term, according to the present usages and tendencies of the language. Without saying that *as though* is evidence of bad English, I say that it belongs to a period of the language when the distinction in the uses of the words *if* and *though* was less marked than now, and that one who wishes to correct 'errors in speech' should make his criticisms conform to modern distinctions rather than to obsolescent identities of meaning.

I will state briefly the construction of all compound elliptical propositions which include the words *as if*. First, we find the principal clause: second, we find a clause which makes a comparison, and is introduced by *as*; this second clause is always hypothetical in character; and its verb is in the past tense, and is either *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*, with the infinitive of the leading verb or verbs of the principal clause: third, the second clause is followed by the condition of the hypothesis expressed in a third clause introduced by *if* or an equivalent term, the verb of the third clause being also *always in the past tense*. I emphasize this because it is some times forgotten:—'he looks as if he *does* not know much' is incorrect; for *does* put *did*: (1st clause) he looks — (2d clause) as [he would look] — (3d clause) if he *did* not know much. The second clause is generally shortened by the omission of all but the introductory word *as*.

With A. W.'s third criticism I heartily agree. I do not entirely agree with the fourth; but as it is only advisory, I will pass it. But is it not 'incontrovertibly a solecism' to use '*prefixed by*' in the place of '*preceded by*'? Is *placing* to be followed by the preposition *to*? I think the words 'no propriety' are better followed by *in* than by *of*. The

sentence needs revision. I propose hereafter to examine A.W.'s fifth criticism. Of his closing sentence I may say that if 'a *little* reflection would satisfy most persons of the correctness of' his remarks, *more* study ought to have a contrary effect so far as some of them are concerned.

SILAS WESTMAN.

THE COST OF POOR SCHOOL-HOUSES.

[THE following is an extract from that part of the State Superintendent's Report which relates to School Architecture. After considering the subject from the educational and sanitary points of view, Mr. Bateman takes up the pecuniary considerations.]

The last and lowest argument involved in the consideration of the subject is the PECUNIARY relation it bears to the system of Common Schools. In a large part of the State the people are alive to the importance of giving liberally to support the schools. This is the result not only of a wise desire to educate their own children, and also sustain the principle which lies at the foundation of the system of common schools, that self-preservation imposes upon the property of a State the obligation to provide for the education of its children, but also of that other principle so well understood in intelligent new settlements, that good school-houses attract good emigrant citizens, and thereby serve to increase the material wealth of a community, as well as to give it a moral and intellectual development.

But while this general aspect of the financial argument in favor of convenient, well-adapted school-buildings is exceedingly important and eminently proper to be considered, there is a more direct and legitimate line of proof that *the best school-houses* — that is, those affording the amplest facilities for accomplishing the work of education — *are the cheapest*; that no district can, in a strictly pecuniary sense, *afford* to have poor school-houses, and that the poorest districts can least of all afford them. This proposition is not propounded as a startling paradox to elicit a momentary interest, but is believed to be susceptible of such a brief and rational demonstration as will command the respect and compel the assent of every candid mind. To place the argument in the clearest light it is only necessary to assume two simple propositions: 1st. That 'TIME IS MONEY'; and 2d. That the same persons can do the same work in less time with good tools than with

poor ones. Suppose, now, that a parent prescribes for his son a given course of study, which the son must thoroughly master, let the time required to do it be what it may. Suppose, also, that the father ascertains, which he may do with great accuracy, that under a good teacher, in a school of forty pupils, and in a well-adapted school-house, and with ordinary assiduity, the prescribed course will require six years, of two hundred and forty school-days each, and six hours to each day.

The problem, as now stated, involves four elements: The work to be done; the teacher who does it; the number of pupils; and the school-house: of which the first three are supposed to be fixed, the last variable. Now, since the completion of the work in the prescribed time is conditioned upon the assumed fitness and adaptation of the building, and since the work *must be done*, it follows that whatever time is lost each day, month, and year, on account of the *unsuitableness of the house* and its equipments, must be made up by extending the time beyond six years. This brings us directly to the practical question, how much time is lost in school through the unfitness of the building, furniture, and other appointments? We here have to deal with elements which, from their nature, do not admit of exact computation; but we can approximate near enough for our purpose. Every teacher in the State who has had experience in school-houses totally unfit for the use to which they are put (of which we have in this State 1102: see Statistical Abstract) is confidently appealed to in confirmation that the following estimates are rather within than beyond the truth:

Loss of time, per day, from languor, debility, etc., caused by ill-ventilation.....	15 minutes.
Defective arrangements for warming—winter term, ten minutes—average	5 “
Unsuitable seats and desks, and consequent crowding, jostling, whispering, prompting, noise, confusion, and general discomfort.....	30 “
Lack of ample and well-arranged black-boards.....	10 “
All other causes, such as the want of ante-rooms with hooks for hats, bonnets, over-coats, etc.—narrow entries, stairs and passages—poor accommodations for water and fuel—neglect of appropriate and convenient private retiring-rooms—want of mats, scrapers, play-grounds, etc.—inconvenient, unsightly, and unhealthy location, etc., etc.....	30 “
Amounting to.....	90 minutes

each day, or one-fourth of the whole time. This result as above remarked, I believe to be below the actual truth; in my own experience of the relative advantages of good and bad school-houses, which has

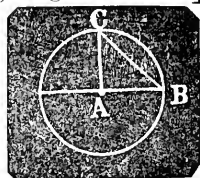
truth. In the case supposed, therefore, instead of completing the prescribed course of study in six years, it will require eight years. Now, assuming five dollars as the average rate of tuition for each scholar, per year, the expense of educating the pupil in question will be increased from *thirty* dollars to *forty* dollars. In other words, the want of a suitable school-house involves the loss of ten dollars *in cash*, for every scholar educated—or *four hundred dollars* for forty scholars—and in the same ratio for a greater or less number, and for a more or less extended course of study.

The money thus wasted would equip and furnish every school-house in the State with the most perfect and beautiful chairs and desks that were ever manufactured; cover every wall with outline maps, charts, and pictures; place a pair of globes and a copy of Webster's Quarto upon every teacher's table; render the arrangements for warming, ventilating and lighting every building as complete as science and art can make them; conform all the appointments and surroundings, both within and without, to the strictest rules of convenience, delicacy and taste—in a word, it would convert every school-house in the State into a place of comfort, refinement, and beauty, and still leave a surplus sufficient to reduce the amount of the average annual district tax of the State more than ten per cent. Taking the foregoing approximate estimates, and the whole number of scholars reported for 1860, as the basis, it would leave a net cash gain of more than half a million of dollars.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—*Another Solution of Prob. III in Oct. No., p. 395.*
 'C. H. L' objects to the solution given in the December number, and offers the following. He says: "The result given by Pupillus is not the area required, but the chord which forms the third side of the triangle. The area can be obtained more readily and with greater accuracy from the data given in the question than from his result. From $\frac{100}{\sqrt{2}}$, the value of the third side as obtained by him, I find the area to be 1249.999+; by the following method it is 1250, the exact result. Again, the diagram in the December number would lead many to suppose that the triangle is obtuse-angled, whereas it is right-angled. [The error here noted is chargeable to the *obtuseness* of the engraver :

he has repeated the blunder in the accompanying diagram.—PUB.] As the radii form two sides of the triangle, AB will be one of those sides, and it may be made the base. With a given base, the greater the altitude the greater the triangle; and therefore we have only to draw AC perpendicular to AB, and complete the triangle by the chord CB. Now, the base AB and the altitude AC each equals 50. One-half their product gives 1250, the area required. From the base and perpendicular of the right-angled triangle ABC we get the hypotenuse $CB = 50\sqrt{2}$, or, $\frac{100}{\sqrt{2}}$, the result given by Pupillus."



We have given our friend C. H. L. the advantage of all the space his article requires, yet it must be confessed that we do not understand the application of his method to the general theory of equations involving conditions for determining the maxima and minima of functions.

MATH. ED.

Prob. I in Nov. No., p. 422.

Question.—If the area of an equilateral triangle increase uniformly at the rate of a square foot per second, at what rate is the perpendicular increasing when the side is 5 inches?

Solution.—Inasmuch as we have received no correct solution to the above, we offer the following, which is believed to be correct. Put u = the area of the triangle for any instant, x = the perpendicular, nx = a side. Then $\frac{nx^2}{2} = u$[1]. Differentiating [1], regarding n as a constant factor, we have $nxdx = du$[2]. $\therefore dx = \frac{du}{nx}$[3].

Now, when $nx = 5$ inches, [3] becomes $dx = \frac{1}{5} \frac{du}{dt} = 28\frac{1}{5}$ inches, the rate of increase of the perpendicular per second as required. M. ED.

Prob. II in Nov. No.

Question.—Find the values of x in the equation [1].... $\frac{3x}{2} - \sqrt{x(x-11\frac{1}{2})} = 6$.

Solution.—By transposing and expanding the second term, we have [2]..... $\frac{3x}{2} = x\sqrt{x-11\frac{1}{2}} + 6$. Subtracting $\frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{4}$ from both members, [3]..... $x - \frac{1}{4} = x\sqrt{x-11\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{x}{2} + 5\frac{3}{4}$. Dividing by $\sqrt{x-11\frac{1}{2}}$, [4]..... $\sqrt{x-11\frac{1}{2}} = x - 11\frac{1}{2}$. Transposing, [5]..... $x - \sqrt{x} = 12$, in which $\sqrt{x} = 4$, or -3 $\therefore x = 16$, or 9 . C. H. L.

Pupillus has also given a correct solution of the above equation.

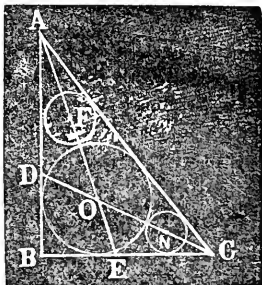
Prob. III in Nov. No.—No correct solution has been received.

Prob. IV in Nov. No.—The following is the propounder's solu-

tion (no other having been received) of Prob. IV in November number, page 422.

Question.—Given, in a right-angled triangle, the lengths of two lines that bisect the acute angles, 40 and 50 respectively, to determine the radii of three inscribed circles which shall be tangent to each other and also tangent to the sides of the triangle.

Solution.—Let ABC be the triangle, right-angled at B. Put the angle $CAB=2\phi$; then $EAB=\phi$, also $ACB=90^\circ-2\phi$, $DCB=45^\circ-\phi$. Put $AE=a=50$, $CD=b=40$. Then (supposing radius=unity) we have $a \cos \phi = AB = AC \cos 2\phi$, also, $b \cos(45^\circ-2\phi) = BC = AC \sin 2\phi$: hence we have, by division, $\frac{b \cos(45^\circ-\phi)}{a \cos \phi} = \frac{\sin 2\phi}{\cos 2\phi}$, or, we have $\frac{b}{a}(1 + \tan \phi) = \sqrt{2} \times \tan 2\phi = \frac{2\sqrt{2} \times \tan \phi}{1 - \tan^2 \phi}$: hence, $\tan^3 \phi +$



$\tan^2 \phi + \left[\frac{(2\sqrt{2})a}{b} - 1 \right] \tan \phi = 1$. Solving this cubic equation, we have, $\tan \phi = .3352208$: hence, $\phi = 18^\circ 31' 56'' = \text{angle } BAE$. \therefore Angle $ACD = DCB = 45^\circ - \phi = 26^\circ 28' 4''$. Now, we readily find the sides AB, BC, and AC, = 47.40728, 35.80737, and 59.41143, respectively. Again, put $BE=n$, which is readily found = 15.8918, $m=47.40728$; then we have, $\frac{mn}{m+n} = 11.90202 = \text{radius of the greatest circle}$. Let O, D, N, be the centres of the circles, in the order of their magnitudes. Put $D=AO=37.44705$, $R=11.90202$; then $\frac{(D-R)R}{D+R} = 6.16095 = \text{radius of the next greater circle}$. In the same way we find the radius of the least circle = 4.56+. The circles are all tangent to the longest side of the triangle.

PROBLEMS.—I. Given, $\left(\frac{x^2+2x+1}{\sqrt[3]{x+4}}\right)^3 + 2644 - \frac{11907}{x+4} = 1326x - x^3$, to find the values of x by quadratics. ADAM.

II. At 20 years of age A. saves one dollar, and continues to do so every year until he is 70 years old. What is he worth, reckoning at ten per cent. compound interest? AARON.

III. Given, $\frac{x+2xy+y}{x} + \frac{4x+y}{x+y} = \frac{x^2+2y+y^2}{y} \dots\dots [1]$, and $\frac{y}{y+y^2+x} = \frac{x}{2x+xy+2y} \dots\dots [2]$, to find the values of x and y . AARON.

IV. A cord of a certain length and diameter makes 50 vibrations per second when stretched with a force of 50 pounds: with what force must the same cord be stretched in order that it may vibrate 75 times per second? PHILOSOPHY.

EDITORS' TABLE.

THE LEGISLATURE OF ILLINOIS has done several things which have an important bearing on the cause of Education,—some for it, and some against it. We are informed that the amendments to the school-law which have been proposed by Mr. Bateman, the nature of which may be seen by reference to the extracts from his report in the January number of the *Teacher*, will pass both houses. Probably the bill to establish a Board of State Examiners will also become a law in some shape: it was thought best by Mr. Bateman to have that scheme in a separate bill rather than in the form of an amendment to the school-law.

The Legislature has had under consideration and has finally passed a bill to postpone the collection of the taxes assessed last year. In another place a correspondent expresses his views upon the matter, which are very mildly expressed, considering the folly and wrong of the measure. When the proposition was before the Senate on the first day of February, Mr. Marshall, of Coles, said that the Finance Committee had at one time decided adverse to the bill, but subsequently determined to report it without recommendation. Mr. Adams, of Lee, said the bill was not needed in the northern counties, and asked whether it was needed in the southern counties. Mr. Kuykendall, of Johnson, said 'the representatives of his district said *they* wanted it, *but he heard no demand for it from the people*'. The Senate, after mangling the bill considerably, sent it to another committee. That committee reported a bill to suspend the payment of taxes *except school or special taxes*. Mr. Kuykendall, of Johnson, moved to strike out the exception. He thought the whole measure uncalled for, but the exception prevented it from doing any good. If the bill was for the relief of the southern counties, the school taxes, which were much more than all the rest together, must be postponed, or it was no relief. Mr. Underwood, of St. Clair, opposed the striking-out of the exception. School-teachers needed their money: they were persons of limited means; and the obligations to pay for education were specially binding. Mr. Richmond, of Schuyler, would strike out the exception: he saw no reason for favoring the school-teachers above other people. Mr. Kuykendall's amendment was lost, and Mr. K. said he should oppose the bill. Mr. Blodgett made Mr. K.'s urgency for the amendment look rather ridiculous by showing that under the laws for the distribution of the State educational tax Johnson county received in 1860 \$3,044 more than it paid. After further discussion and amendments the bill was sent to a special committee, Messrs. Marshall, Kuykendall, and Blodgett. These gentlemen finally reported a bill suspending the collection of taxes without exception; Mr. Underwood tried to get in the exception in favor of school-teachers and persons who have interests in the collection of school-taxes, but failed, only Messrs. Adams of Lee, Bestor, Berry, Casey, Funkhouser, Higbee, and Rogers, voting with him. The bill finally passed the Senate by the affirmative votes of

Messrs. Adams of Lee, Applington, Blodgett, Marshall, Ogden, Oglesby, Pickett (Republicans), Berry, Casey, Funkhouser, Gregg, Higbee, Kuykendall, Richmond, and Rogers (Democrats); while Messrs. Adams of Stephenson, Bestor, Dummer, and Mack (Republicans), and Mr. Underwood (Democrat), voted against it.

It is curious to see in the list of affirmative votes the names of men who had pronounced the law unnecessary. In the House it was passed at once under the previous question, with only the following negative votes: Messrs. Allen, Cook, Hurlburt, Johnson, Jones, Mather, and Smith of Rock Island (Republicans), and Archer, DeWitt, Erwin, Faherty, and Singleton (Democrats). And so was consummated an outrage upon public credit and a blow upon the school-system the weight of which can hardly be estimated: it will be much heavier in the south of the State than in the north, as in counties having township organization the collection is postponed only till April 15th, and in others till August 1st.

The bill to make an appropriation for the benefit of the Normal University, giving it \$65,000, passed the House by a vote of 50 to 19; in the Senate it was amended by increasing the sum to \$98,000, and providing that each county may send two pupils instead of one, and has so passed. Doubtless it will pass the House also. This is a munificent endowment, and if judiciously expended will greatly increase the usefulness of the institution. We should be glad if we could ascribe the donation to any real care for education on the part of the members of the Legislature, so that we might thank them: but when a body gives to a corporation of influential men 50 per cent. more than they asked and postpones the payment of the hard-earned wages of 14,000 unknown teachers of public schools, we think that lobby influences had more to do with the matter than any principle. The corporation had urgent representatives: the poor teachers had but one outside agent, the State Superintendent; the former should not have been disregarded, but the latter should have been regarded. Our pleasure in the endowment is dashed with regret for the dis-endowment of the public schools for which the Normal itself exists.

OUR LEGISLATORS seem to think it necessary to get Illinois into confusion in the general commotions. One member of the Legislature introduced a resolution to abolish the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction! A beautiful system we should have!! We see the papers are pretty widely indorsing Mr. Bateman and his plans.

A bill passed the House postponing the payment of taxes to September. We are wholly unable to find any reason for this except a boyish desire to be doing *something*. We can not hear of any who claimed any relief to the embarrassments of the country by thus interfering with public credit, while we do hear many say that it will be no relief and was not called for. But injudicious as we deem any tinkering with schemes for improving the condition of the country by unsettling the times for payment of regular dues, we deem it absolute injustice to the fourteen thousand teachers who depend on regular payment of the school-tax for their lives to put off the payment of their dues. With as much justice might a law be passed that merchants should not be paid till five months after their claims were due. We know of some who voted for that bill who did not know its provisions. We can not believe it will pass the Senate and be signed by Gov. Yates. If it is passed before this reaches our readers, many schools must stop.

DR. HENRY BARNARD.—In 1859 Dr. Barnard was inaugurated Chancellor of the State University of Wisconsin, and our neighbors felt much joy at having such a man placed at the head of their educational system. But severe and continued labor in connection with that post, the agency of the Normal Board, and other matters, so prostrated him mentally and physically, that he was obliged to go East for his health last May, and has not since been in the State. He offered his resignation last fall, but the Board requested him to withdraw it. Receiving no reply, they have voted to accept it, and the connection of Dr. Barnard with the University is now dissolved.

MASSACHUSETTS.—We neglected to notice in proper time an item which occupied but a single line in the *Massachusetts Teacher*, the appointment of Hon. Joseph White, of Williamstown, as Secretary of the Board of Education. Mr. White is a lawyer.

GYMNASTICS.—Dr. Lewis's New Journal of Physical Culture is giving some very interesting exercises of a gymnastic character which can be performed without apparatus: we confess ourselves surprised to see what a variety of motions he has devised for the purpose.

RHODE ISLAND, PLEASE TAKE NOTICE!—When we borrowed from the *R. I. Schoolmaster* lately an amusing story, we gave due credit for it, and it is not our fault that the *Pa. School Journal* credits it to the *Illinois Teacher*. Pray, don't think we stole it!

INDIANA.—The State Teachers' Association was held on Christmas week at Indianapolis. Several subjects of general and some of local interest were discussed. Most of the business before the Association seems to have related to changes in their school-laws. A two-mill tax was discussed, and it was resolved to urge the Legislature to levy such a tax. A resolution respecting Normal Schools was presented, proposing to ask the Legislature to establish one: we can not find from the report whether it was adopted or not. Most of the members seemed to favor the resolution; but one gentleman was opposed to the whole scheme of Normal Schools, pronouncing them a failure everywhere. He said that our school system does not fail for want of educated men, but for want of proper compensation to such men when they become teachers. Moral education was a subject that came up repeatedly, and with it the question of the use of the Bible in schools. No resolution was adopted on the subject.

Eleven gentlemen in different parts of the State were recommended as conductors of Institutes.

BOSTON.—The School Committee of Boston has voted to purchase for each of its High and Grammar Schools the first series (five volumes) of *Barnard's Journal of Education*. The *Mass. Teacher* calls this a 'a wise and liberal act'. At the same time the Committee ordered for each school a 15-inch slate globe, on a tripod stand.

ALUMINUM.—A firm in England has begun the manufacture of this new metal on an extensive scale, and it is coming more and more into use. Alloyed with

copper so as to form 20 per cent. of the mixture, it makes a compound looking like gold: if reduced to 10 per cent., a very hard alloy is produced, useful for bearings in machinery, pivots, etc.

THREE HOURS A DAY.—The *Aledo Record* inserts the following proposition at the request of a teacher, and invites discussion upon it:

Resolved, That the present excellence of our common schools would be enhanced by reducing the time of teaching to three hours per day.

WISCONSIN.—The Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction is said to contain some curious facts and figures. The number of males in the State of school-age is 150,013; of females, 138,839; the females are only 41 per cent. of the whole number. Nearly one-third of the legal scholars have not attended school. The average rates of wages are, for male teachers \$24.20; for females, \$14.84. The number of log school-houses is 1405 (about 35 per cent. of the whole); of frame, 2296 (about 57 per cent.); of brick 177; and of stone, 166. The highest valuation of a school-house is of one in Janesville, \$32,000; the lowest of one in Ougatamie, 2 cents! average valuation, \$325. Number of drawings of books from school libraries, 32,645; one-fourth of these in Racine alone.

AID FOR INSTITUTES.—We learn that there is a probability that the State will make an appropriation for Teachers' Institutes for two years to come. We understand the plan to be to use this money in destitute counties where local means can not be raised. A systematized Institute-work under charge of the office of Public Instruction will be a powerful help to our school system. *

NOT FIT TO HOLD A CERTIFICATE.—In a late number of the *Teacher* I notice in the 'Local Intelligence' a complaint of the inefficiency of our schools by a Commissioner of Central Illinois. To show where *some* of the blame belongs, I submit the following report of an examination which took place in the region spoken of. I have been frequently employed by our Commissioner to examine teachers when he was hurried by other business. On one occasion a young man applied for a certificate, when the following questions were propounded and the following answers *actually* received:

Question. Who discovered America? *Answer.* Columbus. *Q.* When? *A.* March 10th, 1492. *Q.* Did he first land in North or South America? *A.* At Plymouth Rock in North America. *Q.* Can you give some of the causes which led to the Revolutionary War? *A.* It was caused by Indian massacres. *Q.* Name some of the principal men in that war? *A.* George Washington and Andrew Jackson! *Q.* When was Illinois admitted into the Union? *A.* In 1834. *Q.* Where and by whom was Illinois first settled? *A.* Near Chicago, by the English. *Q.* From what places do we usually reckon longitude? *A.* Greenwich and Washington. *Q.* Where is Greenwich? *A.* Do n't know. *Q.* In what State is Washington? *A.* In New York. *Q.* What is the number of square miles in New York? *A.* Thirty-two millions. *Q.* What is the population? *A.* According to the census of 1850 it was 17,000,000. *Q.* Which is the larger, Illinois, or Massachusetts? *A.* Massachusetts is much the larger!

So he went through all the branches which the Commissioner is required to certify that the candidate is qualified *properly* to teach. Yet, fellow teachers, that

man had in his pocket a certificate from a previous Commissioner good for two years, and he is now teaching and drawing the public money!

Is all the inefficiency of our schools chargeable to the neglect of parents or the want of energy on the part of teachers? Have n't Commissioners the power to improve our schools vastly?

G. A. E.

THIRD BIENNIAL REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION OF THE STATE OF ILLINOIS, 1859-'60.—As a report of the business details of school affairs, this one is unsurpassed by any we have seen from any State office. The various items are presented in a compact form easily seen and comprehended. The wonder is how any one could get so intelligible a report out of the details sent in by local officers. We know that some of the statistics given for County Institutes are not correct; but that is the fault of the School Commissioners who gave the Superintendent the record. In one case more than forty per cent. more teachers are reported as attending an Institute than did attend, as shown by the roll, which we examined, and which contained the names of persons who were in no way connected with schools, except as patrons. Such a case would make us heartily indorse Mr. Bateman's plan for having a system of Institutes under charge and supervision of the State Department.

The number of schools and school-houses reported, and the other statistics, generally, show great advance in educational work. But it is also plain that the advance has not kept up with the population. The population under 21 years of age was, in 1856, 529,485; in 1858, 809,879; in 1860, 895,248. The number of scholars during 1856 was 312,393; in 1858, 440,339; in 1860, 472,247. To keep pace with population under 21, the pupils in 1858 should have been 477,821; in 1860, 528,148. (Mr. Bateman gives the number returned between 5 and 21 after deducting 19,264 in attendance at private schools as 526,930 — very near the estimate we reach as due at school, by another process).

In the recommendations for school-law provisions, and in his treatment of various subjects, Mr. Bateman shows his intimate knowledge of and sympathy with the real work of education. We have not space to note much of what he has said about School Supervision, Professional Certificates for Teachers, Teachers' Institutes, and Primary Instruction. His views on these points will meet the hearty commendation of the teachers of the State, as many of them did at Quincy at the late Association. *School supervision*, MORE THAN ANY OTHER ONE THING, is what we must look to to make our school system worth preserving.

The proposition to issue State Diplomas to teachers, good perpetually for the State, is one on which our views are well known. The line will soon be drawn, we trust, between the apprentice and the experienced practitioner, to say nothing of marking the difference between stolid ignorance and skillful, trained talent.

No greater aid can just now be given to our educational work than good Institutes, properly conducted, under the supervision of the State Department of Public Instruction; and no greater nuisance can be found than so-called Institutes, which, like the earth at an early date (if dates were then) are 'without form and void', yet filling the papers with exaggerated, 'bancombe' accounts of their numbers and work.

Many of us in the school-rooms will recognize Mr. Bateman's perception of actual wants in his urging districts to pay their teachers, like other laborers, when the pay is due.

Mr. Bateman has made zealous efforts to ascertain the condition of the school-houses in the State. He has not been satisfied with the vague and general expression 'a good school-house', which is reported from thousands of districts by observers who do not note minutely. We can not do better than quote from the Report, advising every reader to see what grade the school-house in his district must be classed in:

With the view of obtaining reliable statistical data upon this subject, I inserted the following questions in the blanks issued to Township Treasurers for 1860:

"No. School-houses First Grade.
 " " " Second Grade.
 " " " Third Grade."

and added the following note of explanation:

"Let the first grade include *only* such as are in good repair, with good lot well fenced, and provided with suitable out-houses, furnished with black-boards, and good seats enough to accommodate all the scholars of the district. The second grade should embrace such as are in tolerably good repair, but with small lot, uninclosed, *destitute of out-houses*, poorly seated, and not large enough for the scholars of the district. Fill the third grade with such as are *totally unfit* for the purpose for which they are used."

To these questions the answers returned from One Hundred Counties are:

First Grade.....	2,254
Second "	4,600
Third "	1,084

These figures tell a sad story, and emphasize the earnest appeal which has been attempted in behalf of school architecture. Four Thousand and Six Hundred school-houses in Illinois, in small, *uninclosed* lots, and *DESTITUTE OF OUT-HOUSES!* One Thousand and Eighty-four **TOTALLY UNFIT** for school purposes!! And this, too, in the judgment of the local Township officers, whose standard of estimation is morally certain to be, upon the whole, too low rather than too high. Tried by a just criterion these figures would no doubt be considerably increased. Think of it, parents of Illinois—tens of thousands of your precious sons and *daughters*, at the age of tenderest susceptibility, when you would screen them from the slightest breath of moral contagion, exposed to the influences of school-life in buildings '*totally unfit for use*'. Think of the possible, nay, the certain import of those words—of exposures at which humanity shudders—of inevitable outrages to instincts, the exquisite purity and delicacy of which can not be tarnished without a moral sacrifice in comparison with which the conflagration of the whole *Thousand and Eighty-Four* school-houses and eternal ignorance of books would be a blessing.

He urges the Legislature to give attention to School Architecture by providing for school-officers opportunity to ascertain how to build. A book should be published giving plans and details, as has been done in Pennsylvania. Every friend of schools will be interested in the discussion of the subject of School Architecture and school furnishing. A considerable space is given to reports from the officers of the Normal School. In Mr. Bateman's discussion of the subject, he shows himself in full sympathy with professional teachers. Men and women must prepare especially for teaching—as much as they need to make special preparation for any other work, and even more than in most branches of labor. We need schools of training for teachers, and these are the Normal Schools. Much of the matter of the Report of the University Officers has been before our readers before, pertaining to the building and other matters. The whole Report of the Superintendent is of such permanent interest that it deserves a place in every teacher's library, even where the local details would fail to interest the reader.

B.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

ANSWERS.—*Another reply to Query 19* (p. 431, Vol. VI), "Why is Southern Illinois called Egypt?"

The time of the Black-Hawk War, the time of the Cholera, and the time of 'the Deep Snow', were separated only by a few months, and were partly cotemporaneous. The time when Southern Illinois was named *Egypt* was the fall after the 'deep snow'. The summer was cold, and the few settlers scattered north of Edwardsville and Alton had not ripe corn and had to go South to get it. They gave the region its present name when the north part of the State was darker than the south, because 'they went down into Egypt to buy corn'. This is the origin of the Egyptian name for Southern Illinois. JUN. ED. TEACHER.

The question can be settled only by examination of the newspapers of the time. We lived in Greene county in this State at the time referred to, and well remember the importation of corn; but we can not remember hearing the name Egypt applied to Southern Illinois till much later. SEN. ED. TEACHER.

To Query 21 (p. 484, Vol. VI). "Should we say *Burroughs' book-store*, or *Burroughs's book-store*? *Wells' Grammar*, or *Wells's Grammar*?" E. C. answers, "We should say *Burroughs' book-store* and *Wells' Grammar*." He gives neither authorities nor reasons. We presume that if he should offer any reason, it would be euphony.

We must, however, differ entirely from his decision. The claim of perspicuity is superior to that of euphony; and perspicuity requires that when a noun in the singular ends in *s*, the possessive shall be formed by adding an apostrophe and *s*: *Wells's*, not *Wells'*; *Burroughs's*, not *Burroughs'*. GOULD BROWN approves the rule as we give it, and treats variations from it as errors (see his *Grammar of Grammars*): BULLIONS says 'the usage which omits the *s* is less prevalent and less accurate than that which retains it', but he doubts whether the innovation may not prevail at last. GREENE says 'the weight of authority seems to be in favor of the additional *s* whenever the laws of euphony will admit'. CLARK would agree with E. C. 'in a few words'. WELLS would vary from the regular rule only 'to avoid an unpleasant succession of hissing sounds'. BUTLER says 'the ear alone must decide'—'no definite rule can be given'. But the rule is given above; and a *strong* case should be made out to allow any deviation. The extreme case 'Moses's seat' seems to require exception; for even in 'Moses's seat' we have three hissing or buzzing articulations in succession, and if the possessive is regularly formed we have four. WELLS would say 'Davies's Surveying', and so would most careful writers, and *all teachers should so teach*.

The true authorities are, however, not the grammarians, but the authors. Within twenty-four hours we have been looking for instances of a particular construction, and have found repeated examples of the possessive according to our rule, with no examples to the contrary, in works of the following authors, who are *authorities* indeed: Walter Scott, Macaulay, DeQuincey, Lamb, Addison, Sydney Smith, and Dickens. Is not that sufficient testimony?

ED. ILL. TEACHER.

To Query 22 (p. 484, Vol. VI). "Should percentage be expressed in whole numbers, or in decimals?" I understand C. H. L. to be asking whether we should write '5 per cent.' or '.05 per cent.' to denote, for instance, one twentieth of \$100. I answer, we should write '5 per cent.', or 'five per cent.' *Proof*: 1. Such is usage. 2. One per cent. of \$100 is \$1; and one-half per cent. of \$100 is, then, 50 cents; but $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is .5 per cent.; and .5 per cent. is ten times as much as .05, which must, therefore, be 5 cents, and not \$5. But five per cent. of \$100 is \$5; therefore the expression in figures and words '.05 per cent.' should not be used to express 'five per cent.'

L. D.

To Query 23 (same page). "Is 'a good deal' good English?" It is: *deal* means part; and *good* is used in the sense of considerable, large; see Webster's 26th definition of *good*, where the reader will find the phrase 'a good deal'. It belongs rather to the easy or colloquial English; but we recollect seeing it in our reading of good authors.

ED. ILL. TEACHER.

To Query 24 (same page). "How, after Clark's method, would the sentence 'Knowledge and wisdom, far from being one, have oftentimes no connection', be put in a diagram?" No answer has been offered to this question: we believe that none can be given but a confession that the system does not afford a means of representing the analysis of the sentence. Prof. Crosby gave in the *Massachusetts Teacher* (Dec. 1858, and Feb. 1859) a better system of representation of analysis than Clark's, but no system of representation can present all sentences; and such is the complexity of the relations of words in language that no system of analysis yet presented is sufficient for all sentences. GREENE'S is most elaborate, but is both partial and defective.

ED. ILL. TEACHER.

As the Editor of the *Teacher* is not willing to answer all the queries, he does not now attempt the 23th and 26th, in our last December number; and he hopes that correspondents will favor him with their replies to those and to the 27th, 28th, and 29th, in the January number.

NEW QUERIES.—30. Is *sun* a proper noun in the sentence 'I saw the glorious sun arise'? If not, why not?

E. J. U.

31. Is not *who* more properly a personal pronoun than *he, she, it*, and their cases, since *who* always refers to persons, while the others may stand for brute animals, and *it* may stand for inanimate things?

E. C.

32. "To the Honorable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in Parliament assembled." [*Phillips's Speeches*, p. 43.] "The Honorable, the Legislature of the State of New York." [*Clark's Revised Grammar*, p. 242.] Of what use are *the* before *Commons* and *the* before *Legislature* in the above phrases? Is it proper so to use *the*?

M. C. OF I.

33. "I have some body else's book." Is this a proper expression? B. C. C.

The following question was sent for answer to the Editor of the *Teacher*, whose reply is given below. We number it as—

Query 34. "Never fail to boil it less than 15 minutes." Does this direction mean that the liquid is to be boiled more or less than 15 minutes? The context does not affect the meaning.

Reply.—I will not say what the writer means to signify, but I can easily prove what the words ought to be used to signify. Let us consider four directions:

1. 'Never fail to boil it 15 minutes exactly.' This direction fixes a definite period of time, and the boiling should be stopped at the end of 15 minutes. 2. 'Never fail to boil it as much as 15 minutes.' This fixes the limit of the least boiling allowable, and implies that the liquid may be kept boiling somewhat longer. 3. 'Never fail to boil it more than 15 minutes.' This implies that if the boiling is continued but 15 minutes it will be insufficient; and that the liquid must boil *more* than that length of time. 4. 'Never fail to boil it less than 15 minutes.' The words *less* and *more* being opposites, if the 3d direction requires the boiling to exceed 15 minutes, this 4th direction must mean that it shall not exceed or even equal 15 minutes in duration, but rather fall short of it. Any other interpretation would make the words *less* and *more* equivalent in meaning, reminding one of the phrases in the arithmetics 'more requiring less' and 'less requiring more'.

Take another view. A direction *not to fail to do* any thing is logically or reasonably equivalent to a direction *to do* that thing. 'Never fail to pay your debts' is reasonably equivalent to the direct but less emphatic command—'Pay your debts'. If I strike out the words *never fail to*, I affect the emphasis of the sentence, but

not its rational direction. In the instance given above, if we strike out *never fail to*, the remainder, equivalent in meaning to the original sentence, is—'boil it less than 15 minutes'; a very unambiguous direction.

It seems to me that any other meaning than that which I give to the words could be attached to them only in consequence of the same carelessness in the use of negative terms which leads some people to say 'I could not hardly go a step farther' instead of 'I could hardly go a step further'.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

BOND COUNTY INSTITUTE met at Bethel, January 14th and 15th. There was a fair though not a *full* representation of the teachers from various parts of the county. There was also a good attendance of the citizens of the immediate vicinity. Mr. Cunningham was appointed Conductor; and there were drill exercises of the usual character, essays by Mr. E. Bigelow on School Government and by Miss M. Andrews on Geography, and addresses by Rev. T. W. Hynes and Rev. W. H. Bird. Discussions were had on Clark's Diagram System of teaching Grammar, on Order in School, on School-Management, and on the following resolutions, which were adopted:

WHEREAS, there are many teachers in this county who are teaching for the sake of filling up the time, and, being incompetent and poorly qualified, are willing to teach *for wages far below a fair remuneration*; therefore,

Resolved, (1st.) That the cause of education demands the elevation of the standard of teachers' qualifications.

(2d.) That our School Commissioner be requested to coöperate with us in elevating the standard by enforcing more rigid examinations and by positively refusing certificates to all who prove themselves incompetent.

THE EFFINGHAM COUNTY TEACHERS' INSTITUTE convened at Ewington, Monday, December 24, 1860, according to previous adjournment. The attendance was rather small the first two days, but a number of teachers and others of the county were there, for notice had been given that no conductor would be invited, and that its interest would depend entirely on those who would attend and assist; and its exercises went off very well. The attendance of teachers was very fair, and it showed that there were a greater number in the county who took pride in being teachers and in attending the Institute than heretofore. Wednesday the number of members increased, and continued till the close as large. An essay, 'Self-Culture', by Dr. Matthews, and a poem, 'The Teacher's Vocation', by Miss M. Blair, were instructive and interesting. Several questions were discussed: one, 'Are exhibitions and novel-reading beneficial in any school?', caused considerable talk and feeling. The School Commissioner was not present.

The teachers are holding monthly meetings in various districts in the county, and some of them have been well attended, and are doing much to awaken the people and to inform them of the nature and object of the County Institute. The next County Institute is to be held at Effingham, the first week in April next.

[We thank our attentive friend, Mr. W. S. Johnson, for the above sketch.]

MONROE COUNTY.—According to previous notice, a meeting was held at Waterloo, December 26th, for the formation of a Teachers' Association. Mr. Spahr, from a committee appointed at a previous conference, reported a constitution, which was adopted, and under it Mr. John H. Bremmer was elected President, and Mr. Wm. H. Beninghaus Secretary. The Institute is to meet on the call of the Executive Committee. We give the following letter from a correspondent on the state of affairs in that region:

Monroe County is situated in what is commonly called 'Lower Egypt'. It has been often said that the rays of enlightenment are slow in penetrating the minds

of its citizens. One would suppose, from its contiguity to St. Louis, being nearly the adjoining county on the Illinois side of the Mississippi, that such was not the state of affairs. But we are happy to learn that the clouds are gradually disappearing — that the teachers of the county are making some steps toward a better organization of the school-system. On the 26th of last December, a number of the more active teachers assembled at Waterloo, and organized a Teachers' Institute. Mr. John H. Bremmer, the County School Commissioner, was elected President, and manifested great interest in the proceedings of the meetings. The following article, from the *Waterloo Advocate*, edited by Mr. Kennedy, formerly a teacher and now chairman on the Institute's Executive Committee, presents a sensible picture of what has been as well as what yet remains to be done. We need but add a word of encouragement: go on as you have commenced, and your county will rival in the excellent character of your schools your sister counties of the State of Illinois:

X.

The Teachers' Institute.—One step forward has been made. What is now necessary is to maintain that position so as to gather strength in the interim, and take another one in the course of a few months. We allude to the meeting of a few of the more enterprising and go-ahead teachers of this county, held last Wednesday in our town, on which occasion it organized, by the adoption of a constitution and the election of officers, a Teachers' Institute.

The constitution may be found in another column. It speaks for itself. It in plain language sets forth the objects in view. We need not repeat them. Let every teacher who do n't want to be behind the times, or do n't want to be cast into the shade, take an active part; let every parent who, feeling that he has taxes to pay for the education of his children, is anxious to receive a *quid pro quo*, encourage the movement; in a word, let every school-officer, whose duty as such demands that he should not be neutral, lend his aid and assistance. Let the very children themselves rejoice in the prospect before them — of having teachers for the future, more humane, more educated, more competent.

In its President, the Institute has secured the active coöperation of a man who, from his position, can effect much good. Mr. Bremmer feels at heart the necessity of improvement and system in the cause of education in our county. Let every officer and member coöperate with him, and the organization will be a success resulting in the permanent good of all parties interested.

A session of several days will be held in the spring; the exact time, as well as the proceedings thereat, remains for the Executive Committee to determine. It will do so, however, in a few weeks. In the mean time, teachers, and all parties interested, are requested to canvass the subject among themselves, and thus create as much attention and discussion as possible to the matter.

PIATT COUNTY INSTITUTE.—The Teachers' Association met at Monticello on Wednesday, Nov. 7th, and continued in session through Saturday evening Nov. 10th. Messrs. Leal, of Urbana, and Pickett and Gastman, of Decatur, were present from abroad, rendering assistance, and exercises of the the usual character were conducted by these and by Messrs. Bodman, Welsh, Stickel, Anderson, Pipher, and Huston; essays were read by Misses Yeager and Huston, and addresses were delivered by Messrs. C. D. Moore, of Bement, Pickett, and Gastman.

There were frequent discussions upon various topics, but the report of the meeting does not give us any thing that we can copy beyond what is common in such gatherings. One of the exercises of greatest interest seems to have been the daily report of the critics, of whom there were three appointed each day.

The following are the principal resolutions adopted:

Resolved, (1st.) That teachers who willfully absent themselves from Teachers' Institutes, when within their reach, manifest a disposition highly reprehensible, and are to a great extent unworthy of public patronage as educators of youth.

(2d.) That, inasmuch as our State has appropriated funds for the advancement of common schools, we think educational interests would be greatly promoted by appropriating something for Teachers' Institutes.

(3d.) That we consider outline maps and globes necessary to a proper course of instruction in Geography.

[We have not the fourth resolution.]

(5th.) That we would cordially recommend the introduction of Webster's Pictorial Unabridged Dictionary into every school.

(6th.) That the editors of the *Illinois Teacher* merit great praise for their efforts in the cause of common schools, and that we will encourage the circulation of the *Teacher*.

We are indebted to Mr. Stickel for a copy of the proceedings, from which we have made the above sketch. Mr. Stickel (who was Secretary) says that it is about the first effort of the kind in the county, and that there was good attendance both of teachers and citizens, with increasing interest, so that the four days were found to be too short a time for their wishes.

NORMAL UNIVERSITY.—The Dedication (so-called) of the Normal University building took place on the 24th of January. The Legislature had accepted an invitation to visit the institution and be the guests of the City of Bloomington, and beside the two houses of that body many persons were invited from all parts of the State. A special train from Springfield conveyed the guests from that region, and arrived at Normal at noon. The visitors were received by the Principal and his associates and the Board of Education, and after some time spent in examination of the building, the company proceeded to the great hall above the school-hall, where a cold collation was spread for their refreshment.

Thence the company went to the school-hall, where the pupils were. After some remarks by Mr. Hovey and singing by the school, Mr. Hewett conducted an exercise in Geography: an essay on 'Normal Schools' was read by a pupil: a special exercise was called up, the giving an account of Fort Sumter and the principles of fortification illustrated in its structure: Longfellow's poem 'The Ship of State' was sung: Mr. Moore conducted an exercise in Mental Arithmetic, and the performances of the school were closed with singing.

The President of the Board, Mr. Moulton, then took the chair and presided during the remainder of the exercises. Gov. Yates had been left by the special train, and was expected to arrive by the regular train; but as he had not yet arrived, Mr. Moulton called upon Gov. Bebb, former Governor of Ohio, to speak. Gov. Bebb amused the audience much in a brief speech, after which Gov. Yates delivered a brief address, and was followed by Senator Underwood, of St. Clair, Senator Oglesby, of Macon, and Speaker Collom, of Springfield. The following dedication ode, written by Mr. H. B. Norton, a member of the highest class in the school, was then sung; and the exercises were closed with prayer by Rev. L. P. Clover, of Springfield.

DEDICATION ODE.

The ancient Night is almost gone;
Deep answers to awakening deep;
As ever westward, ever on,
The banners of the morning sweep.
New thought from out the chaos starts;
New powers are struggling into birth:
The crisis call for kingly hearts
To guide the progress of the earth.

The opening era points the way,
And makes that mission-work sublime
Which moulds the infants of to-day
To giants of the coming time.

And joyfully we gather here
To consecrate, with solemn praise,
A fame which honest men may rear,
For such a work in future days.

By all the progress and the might
Which other ages shall unfold;
By all the prophecies that light
The Future's skies of morning gold;
By all which sheds a cheering ray
Upon the path the Past has trod —
We dedicate its walls to-day
To Truth, Humanity, and God.

The visitors then went to Bloomington, where a sumptuous dinner was given them at Royce's Hall. The transactions of that part of the day can not be told with credit to quite a number of those concerned. Too many put an enemy into their mouths that stole their brains away, and noisy carousal disgraced the fair day. We are sorry if this was a necessary measure in the entertainment to induce the members of our Legislature to extend needed relief to the Normal School, but some seemed to think it so.

The visitors departed by the trains of the next night and day, much gratified with their visit.

DR. HOAGLAND has become Editor of the *Putnam County Standard*, at Hennepin. We shall look for a good 'educational column' in that paper now, and surely find it when we look.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

CLASS BOOK OF BOTANY: being Outlines of the Structure, Physiology and Classification of Plants, with a Flora of the United States and Canada. By Alphonso Wood, A.M., Principal of Female Academy, Brooklyn, N.Y. New York: A. S. Barnes & Burr. Troy: Moore & Nims. 8vo. pp. 832.

The approach of Spring bids us prepare for such work as can only then be done: and it is a perpetually-recurring invitation to enter upon the study of that most delightful of all the Natural Sciences, Botany. And here is a very attractive book for the purpose, just issued, and bringing us alike the newest and oldest knowledge, arranged with skillful care.

Prof. Wood is well known among botanists, and it would be presumption in us to affect to praise him. His Class-Book was first issued fifteen years ago, and has had extensive sale and use. It is now thoroughly revised: we might say, rewritten. The results of the author's repeated and far-extended journeys and researches are here given: he says that most of the descriptions are verified by his own personal observation. The list of plants includes every species known to exist from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and also the exotics which have obtained any considerable culture in this country.

The illustrations are abundant (numbered to 745) and well cut. The first part of the book, nearly 200 pages, treats at length of the structure of plants, of the uses of their parts, and of classification. The information given is full, and the style is clear and direct. We should not omit to say that there are excellent tables, indexes, and a glossary. We hope the author and publishers may meet with a due appreciation of their labors and enterprise, for the book is excellent, both in substance and in style.

Recent experiments in the northern part of our State lead us to hope confidently that Prof. Wood has judged too hastily in saying neither the Chinese sugar-cane nor the African millet (popularly called Sorghum and Imphee) will yield a crystallizable syrup. Some of our exchanges affirm that good sugar has been made from the juice of one of them; and when it is remembered what obstacles were overcome to make sugar from beets, which is now largely done in France, we may believe that the benefits to be derived from the canes named are not yet to be pronounced upon.

THE POLITICAL MANUAL. A Complete View of the Theory and Practice of the General and State Governments of the United States. Adapted to the use of Colleges, Academies, and Schools. By Edward D. Mansfield, late Professor of Constitutional Law. New York: A. S. Barnes & Burr. 12mo. pp. 347.

Though some recent events seem to make it supposable that the American nation has ceased to exist, we are neither willing to admit it nor compelled to believe it. And as we have examined the pages of this book, and thought of the great structure of constitutional government reared by the patriots who dared risk the disgraceful death of traitors as well as the more honorable fate of soldiers, we have been still less willing to believe that their grandsons will destroy their glorious work. One cause that has powerfully helped to bring us to our present condition is the want of knowledge of the Constitution of the United States; both of the true nature of the great principles of justice and liberty upon which it is founded, and of the particular frame-work of the government itself. Not ten hours have passed since, in conversation with an intelligent gentleman who is a lawyer and a politician, we mentioned one of the expressly-granted powers of Congress, which he met with a prompt 'O, no!' The nation has heard much for a few years past of the fugitive-slave law; but we have not often found men of either party who could show in conversation sufficient knowledge of the Constitution to judge of Robert Rantoul's speech against it, or of the grounds upon which the *Charleston Mercury* pronounced it a violation of the Constitution. And from the talk which we now see about 'coercing States', we think there are many

men who are not now in 'colleges, academies and schools', but in chairs editorial, who need to read Mansfield's Manual.

We had the pleasure of reading the work first issued under the name of the *Political Grammar*, of which this volume is a revision. We read it more than twenty years ago, with profit and with pleasure, about the time we were to assume the rights of an American voter. We did not take our father's doctrines, but studied for ourselves, and remember to this day how clear some points of constitutional power and national policy were made to us by the *Political Grammar*. We wish all our young men would read it and study it carefully. It has been revised from time to time, with improvements.

The introduction gives political definitions: then follows a history of the formation of the Constitution: then the Constitution is taken up clause by clause, and explained, and illustrated by historical statements; and laws passed and things done under the authority of these clauses are named: then the ratification of the Constitution is narrated, and its adoption by the old States, and the admission of new States. The Theory of the State Governments is next reviewed, and the general principles and practical operations of these and of the National Government examined. The organization of the Executive, Judiciary and Legislative Departments is shown: then the Constitution in full, the Ordinance of 1787, Washington's Farewell Address, and a body of Parliamentary Rules, complete the book. It has also a good index.

We rather wonder that Mr. Mansfield, being a lawyer, should give such a definition as this on p. 27: "A plurality — is to have more than another number," etc. Is the act of having more than another number a plurality? Similarly defective are the definitions of *Democracy* and *Aristocracy*. We never knew before that courts are such solemn affairs: we here read several times that the court has 'solemnly decided' some thing. What is the difference between the solemn decisions and the other ones?

On page 142 we read "The power of determining the time of choosing the electors [of President and Vice-President] is also given to Congress. They have not, however, so exercised it as to appoint the same time. In 1792 they enacted that the States should choose their electors within thirty-four days of the first Wednesday in December. The consequence is, that within that time the elections are still made at different periods." The author goes on to argue the policy of having them chosen on one day. Now it happens that the elections resulting in the choice of Taylor, Pierce, Buchanan, and Lincoln, were held each on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, in the proper years, and that this has been done in accordance with an act of Congress approved by President Tyler January 23, 1845, now more than sixteen years ago.

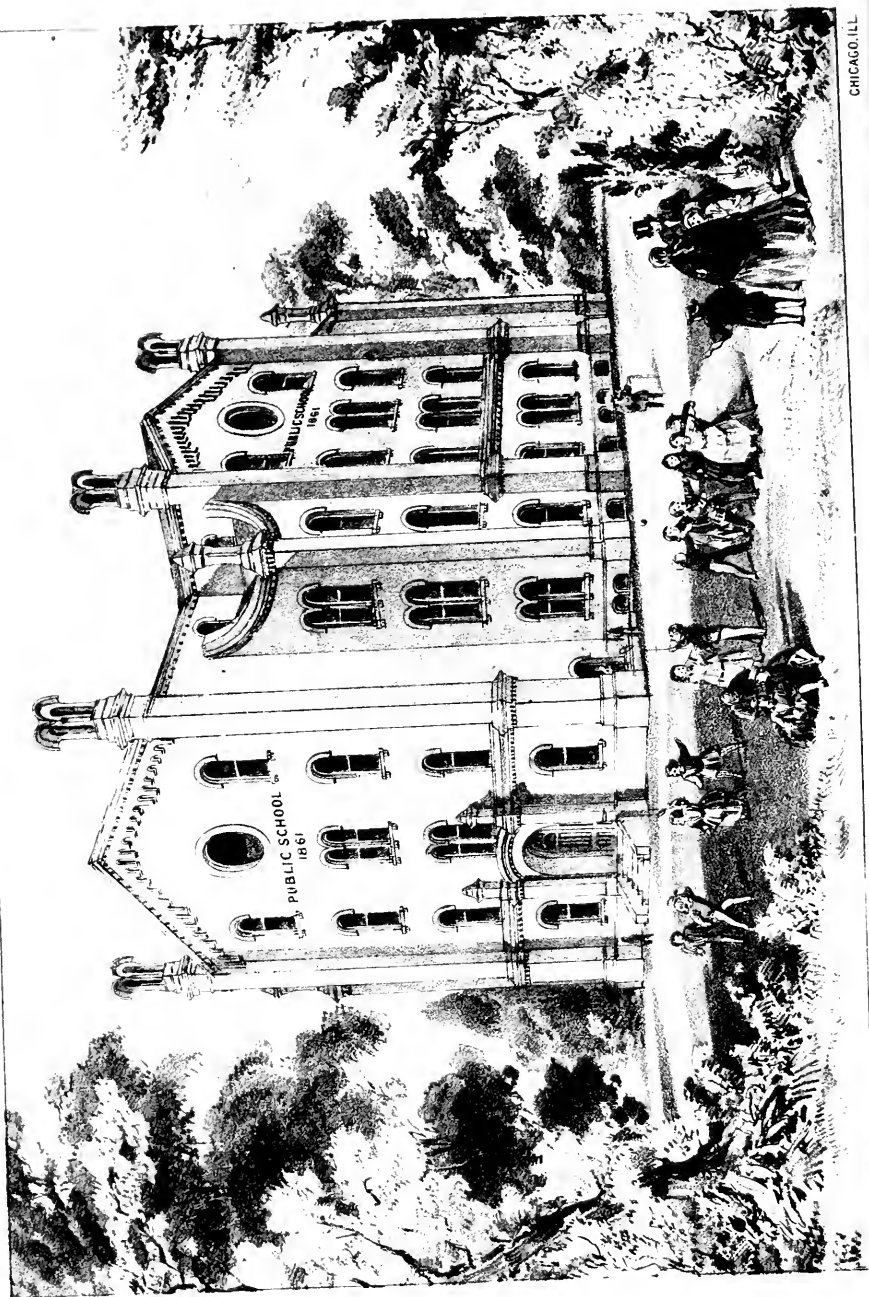
We cheerfully give place to the following notice of a book noticed in our last volume by the editor of the *Teacher*. The paragraph below is written by Mr. WELLS, Superintendent of Public Schools in Chicago:

OBJECT TEACHING, AND ORAL LESSONS ON SOCIAL SCIENCE AND COMMON THINGS, with various illustrations of the Principles and Practice of Primary Education as adopted in the Model and Training Schools of Great Britain. Republished from *Barnard's American Journal of Education*. 434 pages. Svo. Price, in muslin, \$1.50. Published by George Sherwood, Chicago; F. C. Brownell, New York.

The general progress of education during the last ten years has been quite as great in this country as in Great Britain; but in the department of primary instruction it must be confessed that the improvements in British schools have been far greater than in our own. The improved methods of primary teaching introduced in Great Britain are now brought together in a single volume, entitled *Object Teaching, and Oral Lessons on Social Science and Common Things*.

Primary teachers who are really desirous of employing the best methods in their schools will find this volume indispensable. Those who are satisfied with present attainments will perhaps prefer 'The District School as it Was'. *The book is really of more value to primary schools than any other three or even five volumes ever issued in this country.*





ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

MARCH, 1861.

NUMBER 3.

THE CLAIMS OF HISTORY IN THE COMMON SCHOOL.*

THIS man of infinite remembrance was,
And things foregone through many ages held,
Which he recorded still as they did pas,
Ne suffred them to perish through long eld,
As all things els the which this world doth weld;
But laid them up in his immortall scrine,
Where they for ever incorrupted dweld:
The warres he well remembred of King Nine,
Of old Assaracus, and Inachus divine.

The yeares of Nestor nothing were to his,
Ne yet Mathusalem, though longest liv'd;
For he remembred both their infancis:
Ne wonder then if that he were depriv'd
Of native strength now that he them surviv'd.
His chamber all was hangd about with rolls
And old records from auncient times deriv'd,
Some made in books, some in long parchment scrolls,
That were all worm-eaten and full of canker holes.

Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, Book II, Canto IX.

PERTAINING to the common school are two classes of studies: the first embracing branches of universally-acknowledged utility, such as Reading, Writing, Geography, and Arithmetic; the second comprising those studies whose importance is not so readily admitted. The sciences that fall under this latter or questionable head are as various as the tastes of teachers; as extensive almost as the bounds of learn-

* An Essay prepared for the State Teachers' Association at Quincy. By W. W. DAVIS.

ing itself. Is our dominie a botanist? It is, of course, a shame for the child to be ignorant of the flowers that deck the groves and meadows. Is he a disciple of Davies? Then, forsooth, it is vitally necessary for the pupil to master the laws that govern the heavens, in all their mathematical bearings, even though it be to the neglect of the more vital laws of the stomach. Is he a geologist? Surely, children should know something about the rocks and soils on which they tread. Is he a lover of sweet sounds? Singing is, beyond a doubt, the grand secret of successful instruction: school should be opened with singing, closed with singing; noise may be stopped; anger quelled; gloom dissipated; fatigue banished,—all by the magic aid of singing: for, hath not the poet said,

Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast?

But it must be evident that as long as there is no fixed circle of studies established by authority, so long will precedence be given to one and another branch that may be particularly favored by the teacher. It therefore remains for the faithful instructor to inquire what other studies beside the inevitable grammar and arithmetic are adapted to carry on the ideal educational course he has marked out for his pupils. Here we come upon the ground of our Essay, and here we put in a claim for History, on the following considerations:

I. *It has a fitness, peculiar to itself, for exercising certain faculties of the youthful mind.* The mind in its earlier differs widely from the mind in its later years. The intellectual activities that predominate in the child are succeeded by those that characterize the man. Now, true philosophical education must adapt its discipline to the nature of its subject; and considering the nature of the juvenile understanding, what does it find its leading features? The senses are active; the memory is retentive; the reason and judgment not vigorous, but growing; the fancy and imagination in free and happiest play. As for the stimulus proper to each of these faculties, we may say that the senses are wisely trained by nature herself, every moment; for the memory the schools provide Geography, Spelling, declamations, the descriptive parts, in fact, of every study; while to insure the best development of the reasoning powers the fostering care of the exact sciences is graciously invoked.

But what pabulum is furnished those genial picture-galleries of our nature, the fancy and imagination? In many of our schools, none at all: all is grave, logical, disciplinary; the boy is treated as a sage rather than a child, as though he were fonder of a lunar hypothesis than a Robinson Crusoe. To meet the wants of these faculties

History, we believe, possesses admirable qualifications. What a world of gay and glorious thought opens in the pages of the past, before the wondering gaze of the curious youth! For him the classic lands live again in all the pride of ancient story: the Chaldean counts the stars on the plains of Shinar; Thebes sends forth her hosts from a hundred gates; the Macedonian sweeps Asia from the Hellespont to the Hyphasis; the Greek crowns the Acropolis with miracles of genius; imperial Rome leads captive nations in procession to the Capitol; the knight of the middle ages again vindicates the surpassing beauty of his own 'fayre ladye'; while the camp-fires of the Revolution once more blaze beneath the hills of Valley Forge. For materials of this kind, what study so rich? Where may be found a field so abundant in such suggestions as are likely to enkindle all the poetry of the childish nature? Cold utilitarianism may, indeed, say that these finer faculties do not add to the wealth of nations, and that, at any rate, they are of such a character as to possess an inherent tendency to develop without cultivation. In reply, we would simply ask two questions: If the importance of every expansion of the brain must be determined by its relation to profit and loss, why not at once make Political Economy the controlling science of the schools? If *some* powers of the mind enjoy the self-evolving quality to such an excellent degree, *others* may; hence, why the necessity of education at all?

II. *History is indispensable to an intelligent knowledge of Geography.* And by Geography we do not wish to be understood as meaning Topography, or the science of places; the mere location of gulfs and rivers, mountains and cities. These no more comprise a proper description of the earth than a skeleton constitutes an accurate portraiture of a man. The relations that exist between the world and its *inhabitants*; the division of our globe into *states* as well as continents; the classification of *people* equally with productions: these, in our opinion, must necessarily be associated in order to present a human and lively picture of our planet. Man, in short, should be considered, no less than Nature.

But can man in his social geographical aspect be rightly comprehended, irrespective of his connection with the past? As consistently inquire of the naturalist if ages have aught to do with the rocks. Our present political geography is a historical result; hence, History alone can explain the causes by which this result has been produced. Doubtless the assertion may here be made that the existing status of nations can be understood from Mitchell without reference to Macaulay—from seeing mankind as it is, regardless of the

steps by which it has become so. With equal force might it be alleged that the rustic has as complete an idea of the magnetic telegraph as Prof. Morse, for he beholds the wires, the instrument, the message, no less than the inventor; but of the successive trials by which the discovery has been reached, the important applications of which it may be susceptible, the general grandeur of the event, how grossly ignorant! Superficial and unsatisfactory in a similar degree must be that survey of the modern world which is unguided by the 'light of other days'.

Again, our present geography, in its governmental relations, abounds in continual references to the Past, because an offspring of it. The pupil reads that Canada in the one hemisphere, and India in the other, are both under the dominion of England; and that Cuba in the west, and the Philippine Isles in the east, belong to the crown of Spain. How lands so diverse in longitude are yet united under a common sceptre is to him a mystery; a mystery, however, which History can unravel. He reads, further, that the ruins of Thebes are scattered for miles along the Nile; that the remains of Moorish magnificence are still to be seen in the Peninsula; that Venice was at one time the metropolitan city of Europe. Why this mournful change in the spirit of their dream? is the inquiry that involuntarily starts to the mind: this inquiry History also can satisfy. Thus page after page of our text-books on the earth contains statements of facts which, independent of their association with the human race, must become comparatively meaningless and disconnected. The plea may, indeed, be urged that the study of History as a separate branch is inexpedient, as these casual allusions may be readily explained by the teacher at the recitation. But such chance, volunteer comments on the part of the teacher in too many cases fail to impress themselves on the memory; and, at any rate, where there is aught of value at stake, should not be depended on. Beside, we do not carry this principle into other studies, viz., postpone the consideration of one science until it unavoidably arises in another. Do scholars see nothing of Algebra until they stumble on an equation in Conic Sections; or should they be kept in ignorance of the Greek verb until they are called to grapple with one in Herodotus? We believe not. Let History and Geography, then, assume the dignity of separate but sister sciences in the common school, each bestowing an indispensable charm and illumination on the other.

III. *History teaches Moral Science in a way at once familiar and impressive.* "But the Bible," it will be remarked, "is perfect on the subject of ethics; does not the Divine code contain all that is necessary for the moral or religious instruction of the race?" We answer,

it does ; but what portions of the Bible are adapted by their very nature to impress themselves forcibly on the youthful mind ? Are they the Prophets and the Epistles—the doctrinal ? Are they not, rather, Genesis, Daniel, and Ruth, the Life of Christ, and the Acts of the Apostles—the historical ? The Scriptures, therefore, in one sense of the word, are a history, as much as the writings of Gibbon or Alison. If the Bible is historical, why not make it, then, the text-book from which to teach our youth lessons of truth and integrity ? We do : most of our day-scholars learn its leading facts at home or at the Sabbath School. But, moral lessons can not be repeated too often or varied too much to arrest and fix in a right direction the wayward disposition of childhood. May it not be well to draw illustrations of right or wrong conduct from the world's writers, that may be parallel with those found in the Bible ? Do not divines prove a God in History from the records of profane as well as those of sacred literature ? Why, then, may not the great principles of correct action be drawn from the doings of man every where, as of man merely in Judea, Assyria, or Egypt ?

Again, History has been defined as Philosophy teaching by example : hence, let the examples be numerous and universal. The light of the past irradiates and directs the present : hence, let that light be reflected from the Pagan and not alone the Christian world ; for in both, moral laws, in their relation of cause and effect, in their exhibition of glory and shame, are alike eternal and unchangeable. Does the Bible prejudice our hearts against the indulgence of cruelty by the delineation of a Jezebel and Ahab, a Jehu and Jeroboam, a Herod and Pilate ? The secular authors furnish counterparts in a Cambyses or Cleopatra, a Nero or Tiberius, a Charles IX or Philip II. Would it win us with pictures of filial kindness in a Joseph or a Samuel ? As exemplars of a similar love, Lady Jane Grey rises before us in England, our own illustrious Washington in America. So, in the approbation of every virtue and in the denunciation of every vice, so far as mere morality, individual or national, is concerned, the sacred and secular pages unite in the mutual enforcement of each other.

But while all the events that have transpired on our earth may be made the subject of the most fruitful reflections, there are some especially suggestive. The mighty changes, for instance, that loom up in the horizon of Time, whether caused by silent growth or violent revolution, as the ruin of cities or the fall of empires, carry home to the contemplative mind the most convincing lessons of the instability of human affairs. If we ask, with Byron,

Assyria, Greece, Rome, Carthage,—where are they?

—we shall reply in the language of Young:

—— With the years beyond the flood.

“That man is little to be envied,” says Dr. Johnson, “whose patriotism would not gain force on the plains of Marathon, or whose piety would not grow warmer among the ruins of Iona.”

Yes, poor Percival was right when he wrote,

————— there is in the roll
Of eloquence and history, which speak
The deeds of early and of better days;
In these and in the visions that arise
Sublime in midnight musings, and array
Conceptions of the mighty and the good,
There is an elevating influence,
That snatches us awhile from earth, and lifts
The spirit in its strong aspirings, where
Superior beings fill the court of heaven.
And thus his fancy wanders, and has talk
With high imaginings, and pictures out
Communion with the worthies of old Time.

IV. *It is important to understand the history of one's own country.* That an American, for instance, should know something of the settlements of his forefathers at Jamestown and Plymouth Rock; of the eventful drama in which the ‘poor Indian’ played such a prominent but unsuccessful part; of Great Britain and the Revolution, France and Lafayette; the War of 1812; of the gradual formation of these Empire States of the West; and of the wonderful development of this country in all the resources of physical and intellectual wealth; of the nature of the old Confederation and the present Republic; of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States:—that every citizen, we repeat, should be familiar with these things, will hardly be denied. They are, in fact, the elements of true political knowledge; the plain facts necessary to the intelligent exercise of the American's great birth-right; the election of the rulers of his choice.

The student must not, however, be confined to the history of his own land. The nations of the world are not like the articles of a magazine—distinct and disconnected; they are bound to each other by a hundred vital, reciprocal relations: by blood, language, colonization, treaty, trade, friendship, possession. History is a unit—all its parts required to make the whole. It is a play: as Berkeley sings,

The first four acts already past;

The fifth shall close the drama with the day.

If, then, there is a common cord of continuity running through the states of our globe, it is plain that, to get a just idea of the real position occupied by our country in the annals of Time, the events which preceded its foundation should be understood; in other words, Universal History would seem to form an easy and natural preparation to introduce the pupil to that of the United States.

V. *History makes the mind liberal and comprehensive in its views.*
Pope never uttered a fitter sentiment than

The noblest study of mankind is man.

But in what respect? Surely, not alone in his physical structure or mental characteristics, but also as he appears through Time. What a glorious spectacle to contemplate, man's progress from Eden to America! glorious, we mean, to be able to recognize amid all the distracting and discordant elements of ages and circumstances the same beautiful Divine idea ever apparent — the moral and intellectual elevation of the race. The Jews may, indeed, have become idolaters; the accumulated civilization of Western Asia may have been dissipated by the inroad of Turk and Tartar; Athens may have become silent to the inspirations of Philosophy; Europe may have languished under the oppression of the Dark Ages: but, after all, do we not to-day, in the light of History, see the finger of the Almighty controlling every one of these mighty changes for the triumphal splendor of the era in which we live?

From the darkest night of sorrow,
From the deadliest field of strife,
Dawns a clearer, brighter morrow,
Springs a truer, nobler life.

Shakspeare said:

All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players:
They have their exits and their entrances.

In this vast earth-drama, however, the curtain rises for each scene in a different land, and at intervals, not of years, but of centuries. The scene itself, too, has been continually shifting toward the setting sun; and Berkeley's famous line,

Westward the march of empire takes its way,

is most eloquently expanded in the 'Earth and Man' of Prof. Guyot, wherein the perpetually-onward movement of the Caucasian is finely delineated in its ever-westerly bearing, from his first abode, on the Euphrates, to his last, on the Mississippi.

The historian is your true cosmopolitan: the mere geographer, or traveler, possesses the experiences of the wide world to-day; the student of the Past goes further, for he is familiar with the world *yesterday* and to-day.

Thoughts akin to these are, in our opinion, of eminent account to youth; particularly the youth of the present generation. Young America is proverbial for its boldness, its confidence, and its bigotry. This boldness the teachings of History would have a tendency to restrain, by pointing to the miseries of heedless ambition; this confidence, by showing the liability of the best men to err; while this bigotry of opinion, this prejudice of place or time, would learn to disappear before that enlightened view of all countries and all times which considers every people as a member of the common household of nations, and all lands as a common theatre where the Most High has chosen to work out the scheme of man's destiny on the earth.

STERLING, DEC., 1860.

A LEAF FROM THE DIARY OF A DEAF TEACHER.

BY JOE, THE JERSEY MUTE.

SCHOOL-ROOM, MARCH 12TH, 1853.

I HAVE been very busy to-day, examining and correcting the scribblings of my class; no time to smoke. Did I say *smoke*? Yes, I plead guilty of smoking at all times while awake. My class numbers twenty-two children — twelve boys and ten girls,—ranging from thirteen to twenty-one years of age. To think that not one of them pretends to brilliancy of intellect! The instruction of blockheads, if so they may be called, is no easy work; nay, it is like turning the grindstone. This is true of my class. There is no help for it, however. All my scholars are in good health, and, I trust, in fine spirits too, except Sally of Chester county. She is suffering from the effects of a rather unskillful surgical operation upon her diseased tooth, poor girl! I pity her from the bottom of my heart. She is as good in her way as good can be. In phrenological language, however, she has very large Combativeness, which, joined with large Destructiveness, renders it difficult to convince her of error. Conscientiousness is defective, both in head and character. Adhesiveness is moderate; she easily falls in love, but is quick-tempered.

Sally of Harford county is missing from my flock; expected back in a few days. She is amiable, with a small brain, which renders her slow to understand. Her Benevolence is very large, giving tender feelings, and a desire to please all who have charge of her.

Dick—that conceited fellow! not a bit do I like him. He has a predominance of the Animal Temperament; he is fond of mischief; delights to provoke; and seldom forgets injuries done to him. His perceptive faculties are fairly developed. His Self-Esteem is large, giving high conceits of his own worth.

Jack of Somerset county appears to be of a singular turn of mind. The following bit of composition, written recently by this boy, presents only a single instance of the difficulties which his companions in misfortune encounter in acquiring language: “The table is wood. It stands on legs four. It has drawer. The pupils take the rags into the drawer.” Jack is gentle, with a heart full of kindly feelings, and which is easily affected at the common infirmities of human nature. Destructiveness is small; hence he fears to offend his school-mates. He has two sisters, who study with him. One of them is weak-minded, but gentle in disposition; and the other is intellectual, but too old, I apprehend, to learn much.

Jack of Baltimore county is a boy of good capacity, but he never studies hard. Alas! that so fine a mind should be suffered to rot. He some times writes remarkably well, and at other times makes dreadful mistakes. He does not know how to write a *letter proper*; for see the following letter of his:

“*Dear Brother*: I am well. I hope you are also well. James struck me. I hate him. I wish him in the grave. I do not like him. Mary is very ugly. I despise her. She loves me, but I hate her. Thomas bought some apples last Saturday. He never gave them to me. I do not care for him; he is not a good boy. Mr. Nelson has whipped him. I am glad that he has been punished. I can not write a long letter, because I know so very little. You must write to me soon.”

Jack is an instance of memory neglected, and judgment perverted by excessive indulgence in animal pleasures. His intellectual faculties are well developed, with much less of the moral. His veneration is defective, giving incapability to act upon principle, much less ability to distinguish right from wrong.

Kate is a fine-looking girl, of sweet sixteen; owns an excellent heart; writes tolerably well. She has a brother in the same class with her, a fine looking lad, possessed of good memory. I admire her attachment to him; I have never seen an angry word pass between

them. Kate is tall, well formed, and of a graceful presence, with a predominance of the perceptive faculties. Imitation is defective, Form still more so; and hence her incapability of rapid improvement.

Annie is an Indian girl, deaf and dumb from birth. Her mother and younger sisters are both deaf. Her father can hear and speak. Annie has a broad, intellectual head, is ill-tempered, yet strong in her attachments, and improves some. I was once confined to my chamber by sickness: no one was allowed to see me on any pretext whatever; but Annie broke into my room, and flinging herself by my bedside, asked me when I expected to get well and teach her again. She brought several fine apples, and gave me all of them without eating one. Annie's head indicates an uncommon predominance of the Moral Temperament, joined with large Eventuality, Locality, and very large Individuality. She is warmly attached to those who treat her kindly; forgets and forgives injuries done her by her companions. Hope is average; Language full: she writes well and with accuracy.

Maggie is a fright! and a tyrant, too! She will attack grown-up girls, tiger-fashion. She wrote the other day, of a man and his favorite girl, as follows: "Mr. W—— Sarah love pretty smile wise laugh," which, according to the idea she wished to convey, was rendered, "Mr. W—— loves Sarah, who is pretty, and amiable, and merry. Mr. W—— is wise." Maggie picked up a piece of paper in the street a few days since, which I found to contain a bit of poetry. As I am no poet, I of course can not judge of the merits of poetry; but I make bold to publish it, *verbatim, et literatim, et punctuatim*:

THE MUTE.

And has no word, no low, sweet sound
Of sympathy and love,
E'er fallen upon thy spirit pure,
Since it left its home above?

Has no mother's voice of melody
Ever met thy waking ear?
And do they tell me, fair young child,
Such sounds thou canst not hear?

And that in thy hours of infancy
No lulling voice was heard,
Nor brother's laugh of childish glee
A pulse of joy e'er stirred?

As I gaze upon thy forehead fair,
And kiss thy rosy cheek,
And sweep aside thy long dark hair,
Think, wilt thou ever speak?

Sueh sweet thoughts are vain, I know,
For, when life to thee was given,
When thy spirit left its home on high,
The key was kept in heaven."

Maggie solemnly declares she did not write the above poem. I have no doubt of the truth of her assertion, for she was not born to be a poet.

My class forms a museum of minds: more interesting, I believe, than Barnum's Museum.

FEBRUARY 9TH, 1861.

Every thing must change. So with my class. I must remark here that I have long ago dispensed with tobacco, in consequence of a remark of one of my boys that no lady of taste will marry and press her lips to the mouth which emits the offensive smell of tobacco. New pupils have taken the place of the class of 1853. Sally of Chester county looked intelligent—no, under the exterior of intelligence she concealed a vacant mind, totally incapable of taking in any word. Every one who saw her exclaimed, "What beautiful eyes she has!" Yes, she was a beautiful brunette, of pleasing face. I taught her *one* word over and over again, but it found no place in her mind, which, in truth, was all blank. I tried to drive it into her mind, but no entrance could be effected. She was a perfect beauty: the nose was Greek, the mouth finely formed, the neck gracefully curved,—in fact, she was beauty personified; but, what a weak mind! She did not appear to be conscious of her mental defects; she simpered all the time. Since she left my school I have heard nothing of her; therefore my inability to tell what has become of her.

Sally of Harford county was taciturn and studious. She was inclined to be religious. She geuerously gave me a daguerreotype likeness of herself, with which I will not part during my life. I have seen her often since she ceased to be my pupil, but I rarely speak to her, for those vicissitudes of life which wear away old impressions and feelings have, alas! extinguished the lively feelings which I entertained toward her while she was under my care.

Dick left my class and got into another. Soon afterward he ran away from the school, and when in the neighborhood of Richmond, Virginia, was knocked down by the railroad cars, and instantly killed. He was in the habit of swearing; he set at defiance the rules of the school, and frequently told his companions that he would make his abode in hell. He lost his hearing in infancy, by an attack of scarlet fever.

Jack of Somerset county — what of him? I can not say, indeed.

Jack of Baltimore county learned the art and mystery of carving, but he died before he was of age. He was a good son, as I had it from his mother. The balance of my class hardly deserve a passing notice: some of them improved tolerably, and some never learned. Either imbecility or derangement of mind is supposed to have incapacitated them for learning much. The regular routine of a school like mine affords little variety, and presents no striking incidents.

SPELLING AND SPELLING-BOOKS.

WE are not disposed to inquire why the former days were more prosperous than the present, but there are a great many people in the community who honestly and sincerely believe in the fact. In looking over several of the educational journals of the country, we have noticed that this opinion prevails in reference to the important branch of spelling. We should judge, from our reading, that there is quite a respectable minority of those interested in matters pertaining to education, who believe that our schools have degenerated, so far as spelling is concerned. One ascribes the falling-off to the want of sufficient attention to the subject; another to the fact that 'spelling on sides' has been, to a great extent, abolished; and a third is quite sure it is all owing to the introduction of new-fangled methods.

We should not like to be called on to decide either upon the degeneration or the causes which have produced it. We are satisfied, however, that more is required of Grammar Schools now than was at any former time, and that the demand is as unreasonable as it is unnecessary. Twenty-five years ago a pupil could 'pass muster' and be regarded as a very fair scholar without being able to spell 'ichthy-o-sau-rus', 'i-guan-o-don', 'hmn-mnh-gnmnh', and some thousands of others of the same sort. In attempting to conquer these monstrosities, which no person except a professor of palæontology would ever think of spelling without looking in a dictionary, we wink out of sight hundreds of common words, such as 'separate', 'animal', 'inflammation', 'symmetry', etc., which are found in almost every column of the daily newspapers. He who has occasion to use hard words will be obliged to keep on learning to spell just as long as he has occasion to indulge in the use of 'words of learned length and

thundering sound'. The elementary school, with its inadequate means, can not do the work of a lifetime.

Without any intention to intrude on the territory of the croakers, we venture to suggest that every innovation is not necessarily an improvement. We are even so radical as to believe that public sentiment may sanction an error; and that what almost every body regards as the best way may possibly be a very poor way. Of course, it is impertinent to deny what every body affirms, and rather casts an imputation upon the modesty of the twelfth jurymen; but—Pat Finnigan was a fisherman, and exercised his talent in a humble way in supplying the market of the city of Cork with fresh fish. One day, his little bark was blown off soundings, and out of sight of land; whether from the effects of the 'blessed whisky', or from ignorance of the science of navigation, the authorities do not inform us. Pat was disturbed by the turn of events, and sadly perplexed to find his way back to the Cove. Standing on for a time at a venture, he was overhauled by a large brig, which, on hailing it, he found was bound for Cork. With a modesty peculiar to his race and clime, he instantly offered his services to pilot the brig into port. The offer was accepted, and, the painter of his boat made fast to the stern of the brig, he ordered the captain to continue on his course, and call him when he made the land, while he turned in and took a nap. Of course, Pat found his way back to Cork, the blind leading the blind.

We wish to offer a suggestion in regard to spelling and spelling-books, very much as Pat offered to pilot the brig into Cork. Though we have a decided opinion in regard to the matter, we are open to conviction, and hope the captain of some brig will correct our reckoning if it proves to be wrong.

Modestly, and with due deference to every body, we assert our belief that the gentleman who first invented what are called Classified Spelling-Books, however humane and philanthropic his views may have been, was not a public benefactor. On the contrary, we believe he has done more mischief to the cause of correct orthography in the community than 'the man who invented sleep' has done to the time-saving Yankees. Our modern spelling-books are all arranged on this plan; and we know of no respectable work in use at the present time which adopts any other plan.

We acknowledge the labor-saving advantages of the classified system. It is a blessing of incalculable magnitude to those amiable teachers whose visits to the school-room are as mechanical as their labors; who are perfectly satisfied when the class spell round without missing. It is also decidedly humane in its tendency, and saves the

poor little children the trouble of studying their lessons, thus relieving the community of an immense number of curved spines, dyspeptic stomachs, and prematurely-old men and women. It enables the scholar to see at a glance how all the words in the lesson are to be spelled, and to perceive how beautifully accommodating the English language is in having so many words that are spelled almost alike.

Our excellent teacher, who believes in progression — of salary, and has a periodical fit of grumbling because the pay of schoolmasters and schoolmistresses is so small, assigns a lesson in spelling. It is kindly labeled 'Words in *able*', so that the scholar may be sure and give every word that termination. The next day the lesson consists of words in *ible*, and, of course, no pupil can make a mistake without a tremendous effort. These two lessons pass off with immense *eclat*, and the teacher thinks the scholars can n't be beaten in spelling. It is more than probable that they can not, so long as the words are given out in *proper* order.

Suppose we make an *olla podrida* of these words in *able* and *ible*, and then give them out to the same class. Such a course would produce a panic among them, spreading consternation in the ranks. The young gentlemen and young ladies would be disgusted at the stupidity or barbarism of the teacher in thus distorting the natural order of words in the spelling-books. No doubt, as the broken reed is snapped, they would regard themselves as martyrs, and ask their parents to petition the committee for the removal of such a teacher.

After all, perhaps, the fault is not so much in the book as in the teacher. That the classification of words is a valuable aid in teaching their pronunciation must be admitted; but, while teachers use the book as chart and compass, the advantages of the system will not compensate for the mischief it causes.

For our own use, we prefer the old-fashioned method of classifying words by the number of syllables; or, at least, without any regard to analogy in their arrangement. In the absence of such a work, we assign, as a review, several pages, so that words of different characters, and with various terminations, may break up the deceptive harmony of the recitation.

The philosophy of spelling, if there is any philosophy about it, is a mystery to us. The rules of spelling, with two or three exceptions, are utterly useless to the immature mind of the scholar: to obtain the facility of skillfully applying them requires more time and labor than to learn to spell by rote all the words to which they apply. Memory seems to be the only faculty which is exercised, or can be exercised, for the ordinary process of spelling. Many persons who

spell certain words correctly in writing apparently from the force of habit, are unable to spell the same words orally; evidently depending upon the eye alone for guidance. At a recent examination of teachers in Boston, of fifteen words given and two of the candidates contrived to spell every one of them wrong. What the philosophy of their operations was we have no means of knowing.

It is a fact patent in the experience of every skillful teacher, that scholars who spell orally with tolerable accuracy prove to be miserably deficient when, for the first time, they attempt to write the words. The converse of the proposition is hardly less true. From these facts we infer that the art of spelling correctly is chiefly in the education of the ear or the eye. For oral spelling we train the ear till the association of letters in a given word is perfectly familiar. The telegraphic operator, by long practice, is enabled to interpret the clicking sounds of the machine, which are nothing but confusion to the untrained. The surveyor of lumber sees at a glance the number of trees in a forest; his eye has been trained by long practice. The ability to spell correctly must be purchased in like manner, though the memory is actively engaged at the same time.

The practice of walking through a spelling-book for the purpose of learning to spell is very much like committing to memory the contents of a book by successively reading it through, instead of mastering it in small portions. The impression which a single exercise produces upon the mind is too faint to be retained. Back lessons should be frequently reviewed, by spelling orally, and by writing out the words. Nothing but a regular drill can accomplish the purpose.

Mass. Teacher, Feb. 1861.

A N I N C I D E N T

MANY years ago, when our schools were mostly governed by the fear of the birch, old Master G—— was teaching in what had long had the reputation of being a "hard school." Some dozen or larger boys apparently came for no other purpose than to make a disturbance. Mr. G. was an experienced teacher, and well versed in the study of human nature. He soon discovered who the ringleaders were, and made a strong effort to conquer them by kindness. But it all seemed to be in vain. None of his earnest appeals to their sense of right, none of his constant and varied expedients to interest them in study,

seemed to make the least impression for good. The only result was, a more bold opposition to the rules, and more apparent pleasure in annoying their teacher by all the thousand ways which such boys can invent.

Mr. G. had borne long with them, but patience, at length, had had 'her perfect work'. He came to the conclusion that Solomon's remedy *must* be vigorously applied, or his school would certainly be spoiled. The crisis soon came, and the punishment was duly administered. Two or three of the ringleaders, in an unexpected moment, were severely chastised, and the reins of government were tightly drawn. Consternation reigned among the larger boys for a few days. They were evidently astounded that any one should attempt to govern them; but as the teacher showed no signs of relaxation, they soon settled into an orderly course, and during the remainder of the term their deportment and improvement were both commendable.

As was usually practiced in the olden time, the punishment was inflicted in the presence of the whole school. That evening little Mary White was rehearsing at the fireside the events of the day, not omitting, of course, the 'whipping'. She was cautioned to be very careful lest she should be punished, too. Looking up into her mother's face, she exclaimed, with great earnestness, and with childish simplicity:

"Ma, Mr. G——— *won't hurt ME!*"

Long years have passed by since then, and that teacher's head is now silvered with age, and his feet are tottering on life's verge. Fifty-eight winters he has earnestly labored in the school-room as a teacher, and yet he considers these few simple words the highest compliment he ever received. Whenever he speaks of that little incident of his school-life, his eyes flash again with their youthful fire, and his face beams with its olden earnestness.

Teacher, toiling from day to day in some back-woods district, with scarce one friend near thee who can feel thy trials, learn from this little incident a lesson that shall be of use to thee in thy pilgrimage. Guide thy charge into the true path by gentle means if thou canst, but if not, resort to severer ones; for if thou wouldst truly succeed, *govern thou must*. Learn, too, to win the confidence of thy pupils, by thine own consistent character. So shalt thou prove a rich blessing where thou toilest, and be richly blessed in return.

S. J. W., in Conn. Com. School Journal, Feb., 1861.

"WHAT branch of education do you have chiefly in your school?"
"A willow branch, sir."

EDUCATION OF THE FEMALE.

There being in some of its aspects a tentative and unsettled question, the following testimonies, from persons of different character, habits, education, and purposes, who also were speaking of schools in different nations and of different scope, are worthy of record and consideration. The matter is not one admitting of settlement upon speculation, and facts are needed.

The prevailing custom in our own country is to educate the sexes together in our primary, intermediate, and grammar schools, and in our public high schools. While almost all our private academies, and all our colleges with a very few exceptions, are schools for one or other of the sexes separately. One very noticeable consequence of this custom is the limitation of the educational opportunities of young women: the richly-endowed university, under patronage of the State, is closed to one-half the youth of the State. I do not intend to argue here and now—*if ever*—that it should be open to that moiety of our children, but only to offer for the pages of the *Teacher* these two testimonies as to facts that may be seen if all men as they were of these two.

P. H. C.

Mr Stowe, a celebrated Glasgow teacher, uses the following language:

—The youth of both sexes in our Scottish peasantry have been educated together: and, as a whole, the Scotch are the most moral people on earth. Education in England is given separately, and we never have heard from practical men that any benefit has arisen from this arrangement. Some individual instructors there mounce over the prejudices on this point. In Dublin, a larger number of girls turned out badly who had been educated alone than they attained the age of maturity than those who were otherwise brought up—the separation of the sexes had been found to be injurious. It is stated, in the best authority, that of those girls educated in schools of convenience, apart from boys, the greater majority go wrong within a month after being let loose in society, and meeting the other sex. They can not, it is said, resist the slightest compliment or flattery. The separation is intended to keep them strictly moral, but this unnatural seclusion actually generates the very principle desired to be avoided. We may regret that it is impossible to raise the girls as high, intellectually, without

boys as with them—and it is impossible to raise boys morally as high without girls. The girls morally elevate the boys, and the boys intellectually elevate the girls. But more than this—girls themselves are morally elevated by the presence of boys, and boys are intellectually elevated by the presence of girls. Girls brought up with boys are more positively moral, and boys brought up in schools with the girls are more positively intellectual, by the softening influence of the female character. In the Normal Seminary at Glasgow, the most beneficial effects have resulted from the more natural course. Boys and girls, from the age of two or three years to that of fourteen or fifteen, have been trained in the same class-room, galleries, and play-grounds, without impropriety; and they are never separated, except at needle-work.”

In a number of the *Home Journal* last summer, Mr. N. P. gave an account of his observations at Antioch College, Ohio, where both sexes are admitted.

“The influence of each sex,” he says, “upon the manners and habits of the other is found to be refining, as well as stimulative of the higher ambitions; though, naturally, the effect is stronger upon the older than the younger students. No restraint, beyond that of absolute propriety, is put upon their intercourse. The recitations and lectures are, of course, in common; but so are their meals—the refectory being arranged with small tables, at which they form their own parties of four or six, eating and conversing together with the freedom of acquaintances in a restaurant. Out of study-hours they associate as they please, often forming pic-nics and finding amusements in the beautiful scenery of the neighborhood, and mingling much with the society around. Preferences and attachments are inevitable, of course; but these, honorably pursued, are not discouraged or interfered with; and, though under-graduate marriages are not common, particularly where the lady is a ‘Freshman’, one instance has occurred of husband and wife taking their degrees as ‘Bachelors of Arts’ at the same commencement. One couple of ‘best scholars’, who had become attached while ‘Seniors’, and married after graduating, returned to the College to become each a Professor. The ‘Faculty’ seem to act upon the principle, as safely established, that love is only an explosive and dangerous element when bottled up too tightly, and that free intercourse between intellectually-employed persons of both sexes results in greater refinement certainly—matrimony possibly—very rarely in mutual injury.

“It should be mentioned, perhaps, that the gentle sex has one special

officer, a 'matron', who regulates personal habits by presiding over the 'dormitory', or separate college-building, where the female students lodge—and that the present incumbent of this office, Mrs. Paine, a New-England matron, is exercising a very marked influence on the College by her singular efficiency and good judgment. The great purpose—to give the mothers of the West a liberal education—is thus prevented from having the possible drawback of 'scholarly slovenliness'. The well-known fact that this is the cheapest place of educating in the world suggests its advantages, as within reach to a class humbler in life, but with its share of noble natures; and among those last mentioned we should certainly number one young woman who is at present successfully pursuing her studies at the College, but who came there without means, and soon found a way to support herself by hiring as a cook to a family in the neighborhood. There is a Spartan quality in this which tells well as an incident at the 'Alma Mater' of a new country. One rather droll instance of a pioneer adaptability is related: a clergyman 'out West' having written to the Faculty to say that he had quite a family of boys and girls whom he should like to educate, and wishing to know 'whether he could get a job of preaching round there to pay their expenses'."

GYMNASTICS OF DR. LEWIS.

[As the subject of gymnastics in forms adapted for use in connection with schools of various grades is now attracting much attention, we shall frequently give articles relating to it, on various sides of the question. We give below extracts from Dr. Lewis's *New Gymnastics and Boston Journal of Physical Culture*.—EDITOR.]

WORK, AND NOT PLAY.—Scarcely a day passes that some one does not say to me, "Why not urge them to go to work, and turn their muscular exertions to some profit?" The manual-labor schools and colleges, which have so deeply interested some of our best and most earnest educators, have been based upon the idea that this needed muscular exercise might be turned to utilitarian purposes. Of course, such an alternation of intellectual and bodily exercises is good, and it would certainly seem that such institutions should succeed. It is nevertheless true they have almost uniformly failed. Their friends

have explained these failures in a great variety of ways; but I think a fundamental defect has never been properly considered.

It is a simple physiological fact that the student who has *worked* hard over his books for hours does not need *more work*, not even if it be muscular. What he requires is exhilarating play. He needs to laugh and shout; he needs fun and excitement, something which will not simply exercise the muscles, but will make the blood dash through the brain and give a freshness and elasticity to the mind.

Here is to be found the true defect in the manual-labor schools. A gymnasium in which are boisterous, exhilarating games, full of mirth and emulation, will always be instinctively sought by the over-taxed brain.

BAG GAMES.—Bags, large and small, I place among the *first class* in gymnastic apparatus.

Bags, how made.—They should be made of the strongest bed-ticking. The small ones to be cut (for adults) twelve inches square, and the seams sewed with strong linen thread, at least three-fourths of an inch from the edge. The large ones may be cut from sixteen to twenty-four inches square, and the seams made very strong, nearly or quite an inch from the edge.

The bags are to be three-quarters filled with white beans. Beans too old for table are best for this use. The small bags alone should be used during the first month or two, so I shall only describe exercises with these, at present.

First Game.—For example, suppose twenty ladies and gentlemen compose the party. The leader of the class announces, "All ready. Will you please nominate two ladies to choose sides." Miss A. and Miss B. are named, and elected. The ladies thus chosen, taking their positions where they are to stand while engaged in the exercise, choose all the gentlemen first, and then the ladies. The gentlemen, taking hold of each other's hands, will pass along behind the ladies, and then, dropping hands, will step in among them, and thus intermingle with them as completely as possible. Now, all taking hold of hands, the two parties are stretched out to nearly the length of their arms. The parties are to face each other at about six-foot distance. Now a box or two chairs must be placed at either end of each party. Ten or twenty bags are now to be placed at the head of each party, on the box. The parties being ready, the leader counts 'one, two, three', and at the last word the bags are passed, one by one, from hand to hand, until they all reach the foot of the class, when immediately

they are hurried back to the head. The victorious party counts one in the game. Continue thus until the game, which may be five or ten, is finished.

None of our most popular national games is so exhilarating and fascinating. I constantly see persons not much addicted to the merry mood laugh themselves into tears by simply looking on at this exercise, while even Miss Fastidious, forgetting all '*propriety*', will cheer on the contestants.

Second Game.—All are to turn half-round, facing the ladies who choose sides, and who are to be known as the captains of the companies. Now, walking up so that each can put his hands on the shoulders of the one standing in front of him, you are ready. The leader counts again, and at the word '*three*' the bags are to be passed backward over the head, *always with both hands*, and thus they are hurried on until they reach the foot of the class and are there laid on the box. Then, all facing the foot, the bags are hurried back to the place of beginning, the victorious counting one, as in the previous game. Proceed thus until the game is finished.

It should be a rule that in passing the bag behind the head it must be held there *with both hands* until the person behind you takes it. If it fall upon the floor much confusion ensues.

Third Game.—Standing in two rows, facing each other as in the games described, the bags are *all* placed near one of the leaders, and, one by one, thrown across to the leader of the other party, who, upon catching them, throws each immediately back to the person who stands next to the leader on the opposite side; and thus they are thrown backward and forward, working their way down to the foot of the class, where they are allowed to accumulate until they all arrive, when they are hurried back in the same order.

The bags must not be tossed, but thrown directly from the chin, always with both hands.

This is admirable, and serves most effectively in the cultivation of a quick eye, quick, reliable hand, great mental and bodily rapidity, with precision and self-possession. Alone, it is worth more than a complete gymnasium of the old kind.

STILL waters run deep. A mind easily excited is like a shallow stream: you can not sound it without stirring up the mud at the bottom.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE—ART OF READING.

It used to be the fashion to say that the English language—our own cartilaginous tongue, as some one quaintly styles it—is unmusical; and even Byron, whose own burning verse is distinguished not less by its melody than by its incomparable energy, does yet, in a moment of caprice, turn traitor to his native tongue, and ridicule it as

“Our harsh, northern, whistling, grunting guttural,
Which we ’re obliged to hiss, and spit, and sputter all.”

But this is ludicrously untrue; and there is no man whose writings have demonstrated its untruth more conclusively than those of Byron. Even the very stanza from which these lines are quoted is sufficient to rescue the language from the charge which his lordship has endeavored to fix upon it. If the closing couplet is expressive of harshness, the part preceding is equally expressive of gentleness; while he would have looked in vain ‘to the sweet South’ for terms so fit to point his sarcasm as *harsh, whistling, grunting, hiss, spit, sputter*, etc. So that his lordship stands in the position of one who grumbles at the bridge which has carried him ‘safely over the river’, or who borrows his neighbor’s razor to cut his neighbor’s throat with. It may be sport to him to see the engineer thus ‘hoist with his petard’, as Hamlet says; but most people will regard it as an act of ingratitude when a man kicks over the ladder by which he has climbed to eminence.

The English tongue has abundance of materials for those who know how to use them; and with the exception of the Greek, ‘that most wonderful and perfect machine of human thought’, which is beyond all criticism and compare, it is the most musical of languages that the children of clay have yet learned to use. Whether we look to its flexibility and harmony, or to its gigantic strength, its exquisite delicacy, and infinite strength of words, it is every way as noble and copious as the Greek, we believe, and a vehicle no less convenient for those who would give forth to the world

Thoughts that involuntary move *harmonious* numbers.

But to render the English as musical as other tongues it must be fully and distinctly pronounced, or wisely or feelingly read—not slubbered over as it is by ninety-nine persons out of every hundred. There are few persons, we fear, even among the thousands in this

country who have received an 'elegant' education, who know how to read either verse or prose with propriety and effect. In reading poetry, especially, most persons manifest an almost total lack of discrimination and grace. Ignoring the fine harmonies which distinguish it from prose, they render it yet more unrhythmical by a monotonous whine or sing-song. These two faults are the 'Charybdis and Scylla of recitation'; and being so common, it is no wonder men talk of the want of melody in our English tongue. Thus read or recited, there is no language which would not seem harsh and crabbed, though 'musical as Apollo's lute'. Even as far back as the days of Beaumont and Fletcher, the poets used to complain bitterly in their verse

Of those

Whose very reading makes verse senseless prose.

Chicago Record.

HONORS TO AN OLD SALEM SCHOOLMASTER.

WE had one of those pleasant incidents in human life, last evening, whose touches make all the world akin. The schoolmaster was at home, and had a reunion with his scholars. 'Master Dodge', thus honored, is as famous here as ever Master Cheever, Jonathan Snelling, Samson Lyon, and Gideon F. Thayer, were celebrated in Boston as knights of the ferule and the birch. Master Dodge, who is now verging toward his four-score years, is hale and hearty, with a step elastic and firm, and a voice and mind unimpaired by age. He *looks* a schoolmaster, every inch, being a portly man, with a benignant yet sedate and dignified countenance. He is of the average height, and was once a captain of a company, and possessed of great military ardor. Being on a visit from Illinois, where he preaches to a congregation—having been ordained to the ministry in 1847, when he first went out to the West to live in a new settlement,—his scholars agreed to meet him at the Howard-street Chapel, where he formerly worshiped, to shake hands, renew acquaintance, testify regard, and talk over the days of 'Auld lang syne'.

The gathering was quite numerous, and the old schoolmaster sat on a stool in the desk, and looked round upon his scholars assembled on the occasion with a pleasant smile and a look of affectionate regard. Some of the scholars were present of his early classes, in 1806 and 1807, and several were gray-headed and time-worn in the face, nearly

as much as their teacher; but they all felt themselves boys again, and you could see crowding upon their faces the old boyish thoughts and feelings, and something of that deep reverence which a pupil feels in the awful presence of his master, to him the embodiment of human greatness. Mr. Dodge taught about thirty years in Salem, up to 1837; and the last years of his teaching he taught the school of colored children, a goodly number of whom were present, and seemed almost to idolize their old master in their expressions of regard. No one in this case could doubt that they were a very grateful people.

The meeting was informal, and was left to be carried on more by the heart than by the head. Master Dodge made some very kind and sensible remarks at the opening, telling them that he considered them all again as his scholars; and as he had always been accustomed, as they very well knew, to open and close his school with prayer, he should do so on the present occasion, with their permission. The thought pleased the scholars, and they all arose from their seats and with bowed heads united in the very devotional and appropriate service. After this, scholar after scholar arose, and recalled some incident with great good humor, while all eyes sparkled with emotional interest, and joke after joke was perpetrated, making the occasion joyful rather than sad.

His Honor Mayor Webb was present; and although not one of the scholars of Master Dodge, having been a pupil in another school, he well remembered him in his boyhood, and especially as he marched in from 'North Fields', over the North Bridge, at the head of his company, with the spontoon in hand, in all the dignity of martial glory. Mr. Robert Morris, the colored lawyer from Boston, being at Salem on a professional visit to the courts, hearing of the meeting, came to it as an old scholar of Master Dodge, and related how he was turned out of school by him when he was thirteen years of age, for misconduct and a pertinacious refusal to apologize, although the master had called upon his mother to influence him to do so. He narrated how he was pulled over his seat, or with it, because he refused to leave the school. He now, however, would do what he had never done before: he would apologize and acknowledge to his teacher that he had done wrong, and would also testify that all his advancement in the world, his being a member of the Suffolk bar, with some little reputation, was all owing to the kindness and faithful teaching of Master Dodge; and he was proud to acknowledge it, and also to speak for his sisters and brothers, and other colored pupils, how much they estimated his action in giving up a large school of white children to accept the humble appointment of teaching a colored school.

Mr. Stimpson, on behalf of the scholars, presented Master Dodge

with a package containing \$135, which some of the scholars, at short notice, had contributed for a present, as a small token of their affectionate regard.

Many gentlemen participated in the remarks beside those already named, among whom was Mr. Thomas Perkins, who brought his writing-book of 1806, Mr. Lefavor, Mr. Ropes, Mr. Goss, Mr. Goldthwaite, Mr. William R. Gavett, Mr. Wiun, Mr. Manning, and Rev. Mr. Knight.

The meeting will never be forgotten by those who were present, as one peculiarly taking hold of the sensibilities and turning the channel of thought into by-gone years of innocent childhood. Every one felt that a schoolmaster like Master Dodge, who loved his scholars, was faithful to them, and never punished them in anger, was worthy of the tribute paid to him; and the old gentleman left in the cars this morning in fine spirits, many shaking him by the hand, for East-Boston, to visit a son for a few days, preparatory to his final leave for the West on Tuesday, to resume his clerical duties and exercise his functions as 'Father Dodge', a general peace-maker in Milburn, Illinois.

Salem (Mass.) Correspondence of Boston Courier, dated June 15, 1860.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

THE ACTION OF THE LEGISLATURE upon the school-law and upon matters affecting education in the State is not yet sufficiently known to us for us to venture upon a detailed account of it, and upon appropriate comments. We know enough to say that no Legislature of Illinois within our knowledge of public affairs has done so much mischief to the cause of education as the recent one: We spoke last month of its passage of a law to defraud school-teachers of their wages for a while; we shall before next month, we hope, be able to tell of their law to rob the school-fund for the benefit of speculators in lands; probably there is other mischief that we have not heard of. The good that they have done is soon told. They have made a few amendments to the school law, and have added to the endowment of the Normal School.

Of amendments to the school-law we note the following. The State Superintendent is relieved of some labor by a requirement that controverted matters shall be referred first to the County School Commissioner, and to him only upon appeal. The mode of paying the school-fees of pupils transferred from one district to another is made more clear. The election of school directors is more

fully provided for, and set upon the first Monday of August. Provision is made for issuing certificates of three grades by the School Commissioners, and the following provision is added to the law, as a part of Sec. 50:

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction shall also be and he is hereby authorized to grant and issue State Certificates of eminent qualifications as teachers, to such persons as may be found worthy to receive the same, upon due examination, by himself or others whom he shall appoint for that purpose, and who shall exhibit satisfactory evidence of practical experience and success in teaching. Said State Certificate shall supersede the necessity of any and all other examinations, and shall be of perpetual validity in every county and school-district in the State; and the fee for each of such certificates shall be five dollars. But a State Certificate may be canceled by the State Superintendent upon proof of immoral or unprofessional conduct.

The proviso of Sec. 52 is stricken out: it was the proviso allowing the issue of a certificate under some circumstances, to persons not able to pass a thorough examination. The 53d section is amended by requiring that the teacher of a school shall note in his schedule 'the whole number of scholars, giving the males and females separately; the average daily attendance; and shall set the age of each pupil opposite the name of said pupil'. Section 71 is amended by adding the following:

And for their services in visiting schools, and the other duties required in the twentieth section of this act, school commissioners shall be allowed to retain two dollars per day for any number of days not exceeding one hundred in any one year, which account shall be certified and sworn to by the school commissioner. County courts and boards of supervisors are also hereby authorized to make appropriations out of the county treasury to school commissioners for visiting schools and other educational services, and also for the support of county Teachers' Institutes, whenever in their judgment the interests of the schools and the public good would thereby be promoted.

Mr. Bateman's proposed amendment to fix the lowest age for admission to the public schools at six instead of five was not adopted, though very important. We do not believe that any man can give a good reason for retaining the present provision of law. His recommendation to give the people of the districts a potential voice in determining the boundaries of their districts was not adopted, though many private acts were passed creating school-districts, which would probably not have been needed if the popular will could have found sway through methods provided by general law.

An appropriation was expected for sustaining a series of County Institutes under the direction of the State Superintendent; the sum asked was small, but the bill to appropriate it was smothered in a committee of the Senate. Nothing was done to increase the power and efficiency of the State Superintendent's Department: Mr. Bateman did not, so far as we have heard, ask any thing for himself; but if the department had had a few thoughtful friends in each or either House, it is to be hoped that a clerk, a deputy, or an assistant, might have been allowed him, so that the Superintendent might travel among the people more. But education had but one or two friends in the whole Legislature.

REPORTS OF THE ILLINOIS STATE INSANE HOSPITAL, FOR TWO YEARS ENDING DEC. 1, 1860.—The report of the Superintendent of an Insane Hospital is to us one of the most interesting of documents. As insanity is one of the most fearful of dis-

cases, taking from man his highest attributes — well-ordered reason and properly-poised will,—the charity that provides for it and the skill that cures it claim our admiring regard.

The report of the Trustees presents little but statements of the expenses of the years 1859 and 1860, and of the appropriations needed for the next term of two years: they estimate the ordinary appropriation at \$50,000 annually; for securing a supply of water \$10,000; for enlarging and furnishing the buildings, and for sundry desirable improvements, about \$74,000. It appears that the average weekly cost of maintaining the insane is less in the Illinois State Hospital than in any other in America, while it is equally successful in treatment.

The report of Dr. McFarland, Superintendent, gives the following statistics: Number under treatment for the two years, 552; admitted during the time, 323; discharged cured, 154; discharged improved, 32; otherwise, 103; escaped, 3; died, 29. Of the 323 admitted as above said, 114 were between 20 and 30 years of age, and 99 between 30 and 40; 6 were of 60 and over. The males were 174; females, 149, of which latter sex 112 were or had been married. Of causes of insanity, ill health appears foremost, bringing 40 there, about 12 per cent.; religious excitement, business perplexities, domestic trouble, and death of friends, give nearly equal percentages, sending thither 18, 15, 14 and 14 persons respectively; but no satisfactory cause is given for 28 per cent. of cases. Occupations are noticeable: under the name 'domestic duties' are ranked the occupations of 141 of the 323, whom we suppose to be all women, as there were 149 women; the remaining 182 will therefore include all of the men and 8 of the women: of these there were farmers, 92, or 50 per cent.; merchants, 15, or 8 per cent.; laborers, 13, nearly the same percentage; of artisans of various sorts, 29, 16 per cent.; of teachers 7, students 5, clergymen 5, physicians 2, music-teacher 1,—total 20, or about 11 per cent.: we class them together as those who use their brains for abstract and continuous thought more than others, or as having special culture.

Dr. McFarland says that the existing institution must at an early day be aided by two other State asylums, as there are manifest limits to the power of superintendence that one man can exercise, and that one auxiliary should be immediately begun. The regulation of our laws that persons who become insane at the Penitentiary shall be removed to the State Hospital is strongly objected to; Dr. McFarland urges that they can not be brought under the same influences that are curative to the insane who are not convicts; that they can and do escape more easily; that the other insane are injured by their company.

Perhaps teachers may get some hint of powers that operate in their own special field of labor in the following suggestions of Dr. McFarland on the subject of 'Means of Occupation and Amusement'. After speaking of the farm, the kitchen, the laundry, the shops, books, newspapers, the allowed games of chance and skill, and occasional social réunions he says —

Yet, after enumerating all the ordinary recreations in use to while away the monotony of hospital life, the list would be radically deficient if no mention was made of what is, after all, the most unailing of all entertainments — the mutual attrition of minds so abounding in angularities and eccentricities that thought assumes shapes grotesque enough to amuse the gravest auditory. No one can be long in an institution for the insane without perceiving that the influence of insane persons upon one another is generally good, notwithstanding excitements among them are to a degree contagious.

Some of the most salutary influences have been proved to have arisen from the contemplation by one insane person of another in a still worse condition. But the most striking of these mutual influences is produced by the entrance of some new-comer, who brings into the common social

stock some accomplishment of novel kind, or some new 'sensation' idea, by which he can make himself conspicuous. The gentleman who could utter vocal sounds from his throat nearly resembling the strains of an Æolian harp was for some months as good as an ever-present instrument of agreeable music. One gentleman, of fine education and much general intelligence, with singular mental activity, has kept those about him for months together on the high wave of interest at the scheme for founding 'the Republic of Pomona in the South Orkney islands'. From the first conception of this plan to its present complete development, every department of art and science in any way contingent to it has been discussed with a thoroughness that has been quite exhaustive. The disquisitions pronounced upon geography, navigation, purveyance, political economy, municipal government and state religion, would have done no discredit to the author of the *New Atlantis*. These spontaneous sources of interest are some times better than any set entertainment.

Let us apply to pedagogy another of the Dr.'s sentences. "We believe that success in the treatment of the insane largely depends on the ability to engage every mind in some sort of employment or recreation." Yes; and we may draw the parallel between the untrained minds of children and the unhinged minds of Dr. McFarland's patients; success in teaching depends upon the teacher's power to *engage* minds in the pursuit of learning: the teacher may 'keep school' or 'hear recitations', but he can not '*teach*' unless he can secure a motive interest in the studies of the pupil.

OUR MATHEMATICAL PAGES.—MR. Kelly writes to us that he wishes persons communicating either solutions or questions to send their names and addresses with their contributions. His reason is that some times a little change in a communication might secure it a place, when without such change it must be thrown aside; and he desires names and addresses for private correspondence when necessary. We hope that the suggestion will be remembered. Will correspondents who send matter for that department favor us by communicating directly with the editor of the Mathematical pages when their letters contain no other matters: his address is Mr. W. S. Kelly, Ottawa.

A CARD FROM MR. BLODGETT.—For reasons which will not diminish my zeal or effort in the cause of education or educational journals, my nominal editorship of the *Teacher* is ended, and I shall be known to its readers hereafter only as a correspondent, in which capacity I hope to be of no less value to the cause.

AMBOY, ILLS., FEBRUARY 27, 1861.

J. H. BLODGETT.

MR. WESTMAN'S LETTERS have attracted, we find, considerable attention, and our correspondents and those with whom we have conversed, with some variety of opinion, approve them generally. Mr. J. B. Turner, as hinted in his letter in our pages this month, thought that they did justice to the subject so far as they went. Mr. E. P. Weston, State Superintendent of Maine and editor of the *Maine Teacher*, says, in a very favorable notice of our journal: "Mr. S. Westman has a series of letters on grammar in the last volume in which he hits more than one nail on the head. If he has some times struck a slant blow, no matter." The following notice is from the *Bloomington Pandagraph*, the editor of which, a neighbor of ours, is School Commissioner of McLean county, and is an excellent linguist and an accomplished scholar:

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—We have recently been much amused in reading a series of communications to the *Illinois Teacher*, by Silas Westman, on the subject of English Grammar.

We had the pleasure, twenty years ago, of successfully sustaining, in a public discussion before a jury of competent teachers, that the English Grammars in popular use are unworthy of public patronage. One would, therefore, scarcely expect us to be greatly shocked at the determined and uncompromising, but truthful and very able, manner in which the said S. W. cuts his way through these baseless systems of English Grammar, falsely so called; but, on the contrary, we are much gratified to learn that we have a fellow citizen in Illinois who so boldly and so efficiently sets forth views on this subject with which we can cordially sympathize: and if we had among us a few more such spirits, engaged in educational enterprises, we should hope soon to see these accumulations of literary trash, called English Grammar, come tumbling about the ears of those who construct them. In their stead would soon arise a new and beautiful system of instruction, as creditable to teachers as beneficial to pupils.

We shall have from the same pen during the coming year frequent articles on grammatical subjects, in some of which we expect that Mr. Westman will show what he thinks should be taught as well as what should not be taught.

PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL REPORTS.—Our thanks are due to the Deputy Superintendent of Pennsylvania, Mr. Samuel P. Bates, for a copy of the School Reports of that State.

Mr. Burrowes has made his report strictly a report of business matters relating to the school affairs of that State and its policy. It is therefore not a report to be quoted from to any considerable extent; though a good report, its excellence is in its unity and fitness for its purpose, as a whole. We might as well take a brick from a house to exhibit as a sample, as to offer extracts from the report to show its quality. We notice the following facts that are of general interest.

During 25 years \$5,342,640 have been expended for common-school houses in that State; more than one-half of this (\$2,733,540) has been spent since the present system went into operation in 1854; and more than one fourth of it (\$1,434,203.66) within three years. This large expenditure Mr. Burrowes cites as a reason for a slight falling-off in the average of wages of male teachers, and for diminution of average length of school terms. In twenty-five years the State has raised and expended for common-school purposes \$26,778,065.80; whether this calculation includes Philadelphia we can not say; we think it does not. Pennsylvania raises all her school money by taxation; she has no funds as Illinois has; and Mr. Burrowes thinks it fortunate that their financial system is so simple.

Comparative statistics are not of great value, as it is impossible to equalize the circumstances affecting the items tabulated. Nevertheless, we have thought that a comparison between the great States of Pennsylvania and Illinois would present points of interest, and have compiled from the two recent reports and from census reports the following table:

	Pennsylvania.	Illinois.
Area, square miles.....	46,000.....	55,465
Counties	65.....	102
Population, 1860.....	2,917,018.....	1,691,238
Population to square mile.....	63+.....	30+
Number of Pupils.....	647,414.....	472,247
Of population, pupils are.....	21 4-10 p. ct.....	28 8-10 p. ct.
Number of Schools.....	11,577.....	9,162
Number of Districts.....	1,778.....	8,956
Number of Teachers.....	14,065.....	14,708
Average wages, of males.....	\$24.20.....	\$28.80
Average wages, of females.....	18.11.....	18.80
Average time of schools.....	5.25 mos.....	6.90 mos.
Whole cost for the year.....	\$2,619,377.....	\$2,259,868
School-Taxes for the year.....	2,015,786.....	2,003,420

Normal Schools.—Pennsylvania pursues a different policy respecting Normal Schools from that of any other State, so far as we can learn. It was enacted that schools might become State Normal Schools on the following condition: that the school should furnish the requisite buildings situate on not less than ten acres of ground, with accommodations and teaching force for the training of 300 pupils in normal classes; that when three such schools should have applied for recognition, the State Inspectors should examine the schools, and if satisfied with one or more, should adopt such successful applicants as State Normal Schools: the only advantage resulting from such adoption is that the graduates are recognized as professional teachers throughout the State, without local examination. No gift or endowment had been promised by the State; but the Superintendent recommends that to the one which now is and to another which is expected soon to take the same rank an appropriation be made; to each \$15,000. For Institutes he asks \$9,000, to hold an Institute in each county, as Mr. Bateman planned for our own State.

The Department of Public Instruction is organized now with the following officers:

1. The State Superintendent, with a salary of \$1,500. 2. The Deputy Superintendent, "to act for and in the absence of the head of the Department; but whose chief duty now is and will be (he being a liberal scholar, practical teacher, and experienced county Superintendent) to visit the counties, assist at Institutes, and on other suitable occasions promote the improvement of the teachers and schools", salary \$1,400. 3. The Warrant Clerk, to distribute the State appropriations, pay

County Superintendents, etc., salary \$1,000. 4. The Report Clerk, to receive the reports from the districts and counties, to correct their errors, and tabularize them, salary \$1,000. 5. The Messenger, salary \$500.

Mr. Burrowes asks for two more clerks, as follows: a Statistic Clerk, to obtain reports, catalogues, and other available information of all public institutions and private schools, and to methodize the results, salary \$1,000; a Letter Clerk, to copy the letters of the Superintendent and transmit fair copies to correspondents, to keep records of the decisions and letters, and file all papers not belonging to the other desks, salary \$1,000. Such is Mr. Burrowes's view of a well-organized Educational Department, and it is not extravagant. It makes us sick at heart to see the liberality of New York and Pennsylvania, and contrast it with the niggard parsimony of the fourth State of the Union in point of population and of the elements of power,—Illinois. Mr. Burrowes has in his office five men, and asks for seven; In Illinois, the duties of the Warrant Clerk belong to the Auditor, but Mr. Bateman has to be the other four or six men. When can we have a Legislature that will recognize the great economy which lies in perfect organization and will act upon such knowledge?

MAINE, AND CANADA.—We acknowledge the courtesies of the Superintendents of Maine and Canada, who have sent us their annual reports. We hope to give extended notice of them next month.

DEAF AND DUMB ASYLUM.—Mr. Gillett will please accept our thanks for a copy of his Report, to which we will devote more attention in these pages hereafter.

PIANOS.—Our readers doubtless noticed on the cover of the *Teacher* for February an advertisement, which will be before them again next month, from Messrs. Boardman, Gray & Co., of Albany, N.Y., manufacturers of pianos. Their advertisement is specially interesting to teachers who want such instruments in their school-rooms, because this firm has designed and manufactured a piano expressly for schools, which is at once low-priced, neat, strong, and good-toned. We spoke in the *Teacher* of last August of seeing one of them at the music-store of Prof. Cady in Chicago; they are six-octave pianos (A to A), with iron rim upon a wooden case and bed, with round corners, over-strung so as to take less room, 4½ feet long and 2½ feet wide, and still of good, rich and full tone. We count these gentlemen public benefactors in their efforts to furnish to those who can not afford costly pianos the opportunity of obtaining good ones at the cost of \$125 and \$150. The greater part of the price of expensive pianos is paid for workmanship and beauty of finish which does not improve the tone.

The manufactory of this firm was destroyed by fire Sept. 15, 1860: they lost all their machinery, tools, and 115 pianos, and three-fourths of their building; but so energetically did they meet the disaster that on the 15th of November the factory was rebuilt and re-roofed, and they are now as actively engaged as ever.

In the days when the Editor of the *Teacher* used to tune pianos, it was a pleasure to him to find that he was called to exercise his skill upon a piano from this factory, for he was sure of a pure tone and good workmanship; and it is as pleasant to the tuner as to the player to be assured of such qualities in an instrument. We therefore *know* of what we speak.

MR. RANDALL'S SCHOOL-HOUSE.—Our magazine is adorned this month with an engraving representing a Union School House designed by Mr. G. P. Randall of Chicago, an architect of deserved reputation and eminence in his profession. Mr. Randall has given special attention to the styles of architecture most appropriate for school-houses, and (as he advertises in this number of the *Teacher*) is desirous to extend his business in that line. This branch of the business requires some special knowledge; and we have seen two buildings planned by this gentleman which are so admirable in their own way that we heartily commend him to all school-officers who have an ambition to do well in putting up new houses. We refer to the Normal-School building, and the Newberry School, Chicago. The internal arrangements in each of them are admirable; and his taste in exterior form will suit the most fastidious.

BOARD OF EDUCATION.—Five appointments have been made of members of this Board, which is the Corporation of the Normal School: T. J. Pickett, of Rock Island; Dr. G. P. Rex, of Pike; Dr. Calvin Goudy, of Christian; John W. Sheahan, of Cook; and Wm. H. Green, of Massac. We have a notion to say something of these appointments hereafter, which will probably not be altogether complimentary to all the parties.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E .

HOW GOES THE BATTLE?—"Starboard your helm! All hands on deck! A sail ahead! Ahoy!! We must round to and hail the stranger, and hear her report."

The captain of said brig reports that he cast anchor for two days alongside of the man-of-war, then mooring at Quincy, and noted several interesting things on board: among these was a new Paixhan gun, called, I believe the 'Object-gun', presented for examination and trial by Commander Weleh. Said gun was highly approved by all the chief officers of the ordnance staff, and pronounced vastly superior to the old pop-guns invented by Lindley Murray & Co.: and it was recommended to introduce them as fast as the few old maids in the service could screw their courage up to the sticking-point of handling and firing them. It was unanimously decided that it would be better to load them with 'villainous salt-petre, dug out of the bowels of the harmless earth', rather than in the old way *with sap*, even if it did make more noise in the explosion. After leaving Quincy, the brig coasted along past Springfield, and witnessed the discharge of a new species of ordnance constructed on somewhat similar principles by Commodore Bateman. This seemed to be a sort of a young ABORIGINAL VOLCANO, which, in the discharge, very quietly bursted up, and shivered and shattered a vast amount of old rubbish and debris; burnt an enormous quantity of gas into dry cinders; and threw a broad and clear light over the whole landscape far and near. This is intended, of course, mainly for the land-service. Cruising toward the North, the brig, for one day, ran alongside of the steamer Normal, off Bloomington, and was pleased to find these Quincy object-guns on board, and in so successful operation that they even dared to attack with them Fort Sumter itself, and that, too with most evident success. The officers on board of that steamer are evidently not afraid to fire off these terrible guns, even when loaded to the muzzle with something beside the old-fashioned paper wadding and sap. The Captain there fell in with Commander Willard with his corps, who, with their new MINIE RIFLES, have perfectly riddled the old paste-board forts erected by the said Lindley Murray & Co., of pop-gun notoriety. These rifles are not as startling and noisy in their report as many other guns (which some times kick so hard that they knock the gunner over before they hit the game), but they are terribly sure in their aim and their effect. At several points, also, in these seas, the Captain fell in with a nice little flotilla of Readers, on an entirely new plan, and looking toward the same great want in the service, constructed by Marcius Willson and launched by Harper & Brothers, New York. These consist of a variety of scientific steam-craft of all sizes, from one ton to five hundred tons burden, and designed to take the place of the old literary and rhetorical scows, and tugs, and tow-boats of former times, in which the youthful crew had to row themselves when they could; but more generally found that they could not, so they sat and sang day after day in most dolorous strains, 'heave-away-boys', without really advancing a single peg. This laborious exercise was called in *Nauti-cal* language 'A COMMON SCHOOL'.

After this most interesting report from the captain, I ordered all sails set, and the ship squared to the wind, the watch stationed, and all hands below to take a quiet sleep. Being excessively weary, I fell at first into a restless, unquiet sleep, with strange, uneasy dreams. I thought I was in a close, half-lighted and half-warmed room, stuffed full with little despairing urchins of all shapes, and sexes, and sizes, all sitting bolt upright, with myself on a hard board. What they were

doing I could not exactly tell, though the mephitic state of the air, and the general clatter of slates, pencils, boot-heels, books and papers, plainly showed that they all perfectly agreed at least in one point — that all alike felt terribly uneasy and longed for the hour of their release. I could not say that the place was exactly like the hold of a ship, and still its general impression was the same, and I began to think I had slid upon a white-slaver, and was already in the middle passage. I gasped for a little fresh air; and the children yawned and gaped, and stretched, first their arms, then their legs, then lopped their heads down, first on one side, then on the other, or straightened up and spit wads of chewed paper into each other's faces; and thus manifested in all sorts of ways that they were under the same stifling sense of depression and uneasiness that I was myself. In a few minutes all sorts of unearthly noises began to greet my ears: "long-a-in-hate," "short-a-in-hat," "nouns-name-of-er-thing," "gografre," "eternology," "rithmatic," "sin-tax," "proserdy," "ch-like-teh," "twice-ones-two," "I love," "thou-lovest," "he-she-er-it-loves," "perpersion-governs-in-the-jective-case," "amaveram-amaveras-amaverat," "nomtive case governs-the-verb," "please, sir — Sam? — fire? — out?" — all commingling with a general cannonade from a battalion of spellers drawn up in battle-array by the presiding genius of the place, from whom I learned I was in a 'common school', and woke up, of course, as quick as I could, and with a deep groan turned over on to the other side for another nap.

I now dreamt that I was in a beautiful airy building, situated in a vast and fertile plain covered with farms, and orchards, and fields, and flocks, and herds; around me were a multitude of bright and cheerful little faces, each as evidently eager for knowledge as the lark is for the day-spring. The TEACHER was there: "My children," said he, "look out of these windows upon the bright world which God has made: that is his great school-house. You see it is full of all possible sorts of cabinet specimens, and natural and artificial apparatus, and implements, for moral and intellectual development and instruction. There is not one of all these myriads of shining plants, and beautiful flowers, and humming insects; nay, not one solitary pebble or stone, that does not open to the human soul whole volumes of knowledge at once interesting, useful, and wonderful, and contain within itself still other volumes of mystery which the human soul can not as yet fathom. Come, then, children, let us seek knowledge in this wonderful school of our Heavenly Father, open alike to all, but best read under the direction of a LIVING teacher. Wherever you ramble, or wherever you go, notice carefully all these wonderful things; and if you find any thing, in or about them, which you do not fully understand, bring them into this room, and we will examine and name and explain it, in its form, color, size, qualities, and uses, and relations, so far as it is possible, and thus we will all together learn to look through nature up to nature's God, the great father and teacher of all. Remember, too, children, that words are useful only as they truly describe those beautiful things which God has made, or truly reveal the beautiful thoughts and emotions which these things have excited or inspired in the soul of man: let all your words, then, be distinct, clear, truthful, and proper; and when you arrive at a proper age you shall also study the philosophy of words as well as of things." So speaking, he took a variety of objects, already prepared, from his desk, and in a natural and logical order and manner began to teach the children their several names, parts, uses, and relations: all listened with eager anxiety, or questioned with premature intelligence; and the whole school seemed joyous as a flock of birds caroling amid the branches of some favorite tree. I awoke again, and shouted at the top of my voice, "Watchman, what of the night?" "Ay, ay, sir; all clear; fine breeze; twelve knots an hour, sir; day breaking fast, sir." So I got up and took my longitude and latitude, and found I was in Illinois, United States of America, on the old Union ship, with the stars and stripes all above me, and a whole united fleet of progressive, if not perfect, teachers all around me; and I just concluded that all was well, and again went into my bunk for a good long snooze; and with all these pleasant sights and reports around me, and all these pleasant dreams within me, I see no particular necessity for waking up again for the next half-century. So good night to you all.

J. B. TURNER.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

ANSWERS.—*To Query 22.* L. D. mistakes the nature of my question respecting percentage. No one ever falls into the error of writing ‘.05 per cent.’ Is the proper basis of percentage a unit, or a hundred? In other words, does 5 *per cent.* mean 5 of a hundred, or 5 hundredths? and when the words *per cent.* are not used, should it be written 5 or .05? It should be one or the other, and yet authors make it both. In casting interest, 5 per cent. is always written .05; but when we find the rate from the principal, interest, and time, we are given to understand that 5 means 5 per cent. The query was suggested to me by the solution in the November number of Problem III, of September’s issue. It is a problem in which rate is required. I quote: “gives a quadratic equation, in which $x = .05046$. $\therefore \$.05046 \times 100 = \5.046 , the rate of interest per \$100 required.” Now, was not the rate ascertained when the value of x was found? My own opinion is that it should never be written as a whole number without the words *per cent.* added; but the derivation of the term would seem to indicate otherwise. C. H. L.

To Query 26. “When should pronouns referring to Deity commence with capital letters?” At the beginning of a sentence, of a line of poetry, of a formal quotation, and, generally, wherever it would be proper to use a capital letter if the pronoun referred to any other being or thing, in the third person; in the second person, the capital should also be used in invocation. It is a practice with some to use a capital as the initial letter of a pronoun invariably when God is referred to. The only reason that can be assigned for this departure from the general rules of the language is that it is done as a mark of reverence; but really, ninety-nine of every hundred who follow this rule do so simply because it is adopted by others, and not from the influence of devotional sentiments. Until about the beginning of the present century, it was the rule in writing and printing the English language to begin every noun with a capital letter; but I find in works printed about the middle of the last century, even those on religious subjects, and written by men quite as devout as any of the present age, that pronouns referring to the Deity invariably begin with a small letter in all cases where we would now so write them if referring to man. From this I infer that the departure from the general rule is of recent origin; and as it has not obtained universal or even very general adoption, it seems to me to savor more of an affectation of piety than of the genuine article. N.

To what N. says we would add that we have seen instances of the use of capitals in the personal pronoun of the third person singular when referring to Deity where such use seemed appropriate, because the antecedent had not been expressed, and was left to be conceived from the implication of the context: thus, one writing of a severe affliction writes: “It was a heavy stroke; but we feel that He doeth all things well.” Here the pronoun supplies in a peculiar manner the place of the noun. Gould Brown allows the use of capitals to begin “all names of the Deity, and some times their emphatic substitutes.” But unless there is some special reason like that which we have named, or to distinguish the rela-

tion of the pronoun in sentences where other *hes* and *hims* refer to other persons, so as to create a possible confusion of reference (and then it is far better to amend the sentence), the simple usage of all our Bibles should be followed, which is in fact N.'s rule.

To Query 30. "Is *sun* a proper noun in the sentence, 'I saw the glorious sun arise'?" It is not. A proper noun is a name specially applied to a particular thing. Sun is not such a name. There are many suns in the realms of space, and this name applies to them, not because it has been given to each one individually, but because it is theirs by virtue of their belonging to a particular class of objects. Modifying words may make any common noun have a special reference, as 'this man', 'the senator from Illinois'; but it is not thereby made a proper noun. Objects that have proper names have also common names. In this case *sun* is the common and *Sol* the proper noun.

C. H. L.

To Query 31. "Is not *who* more properly a personal pronoun than *he*, *she*, *it*, and their cases, since *who* always refers to persons, while the others may stand for brute animals, and *it* may stand for inanimate things?" All distinctions in Grammar should be made upon the *use* of words. It is the peculiar use, or office, of some pronouns to represent the *person* of their antecedents; they are called *person-al* pronouns. Pronouns not so used belong to some other class. The particular class to which any pronoun belongs does not depend upon the character of the noun represented, but upon the manner in which the pronoun itself is used. *He*, *she*, *it*, and their cases, represent person, and are personal pronouns; *who* does not so represent the person of its antecedent, and it not a personal pronoun.

JEUH.

[C. H. L. has also given an answer to this query similar to the above.]

To Query 32. "The Honorable the Legislature of the State of New York." This phraseology is sanctioned by parliamentary usage. Brown quotes it as correct, but supposes an ellipsis of the word *body*, and hence inserts a comma after *honorable*.

C. H. L.

To Query 33. "'I have some body else's book.' Is this a proper expression?" Pronominal adjectives when in the possessive case take the apostrophe and *s*, and in cases of apposition the possessive sign is attached to that name which next precedes the governing word.

C. H. L.

In this department we present the following notes upon Mr. Westman's notes in the last volume.

I can not unqualifiedly agree with Mr. Westman when he says *March two* is not good English. Certainly it is not good English in so much as it is not authorized by the use of that particular expression; yet is it not authorized by analogous usage? And is not analogy good law? When I write *March 2*, I would read *March two*, meaning March, day two — day number two.

March 2nd, I think is equivalent to *March, 2nd day*. To express the ordinal with the figure, should not *st*, *nd*, *rd*, *th*, always be affixed?

N. R. E.

Mr. Westman instances the naming of the day of the month, for an exception

to the use of the cardinal numerals in expressing the order, when the numeral is placed after the name which the numeral qualifies.

I think this is not an exception. When we say *February sixth* we do not mean *sixth February*, but *sixth of February*, that is, *sixth day of February*—February, sixth day. *Sixth* qualifies *day*, not *February*.

(*Query*: Should there not be a comma after *February*; thus: February, 6th—February, sixth day?) To use the cardinal numeral the expression would become *February, day six*, or, February, day number six. I would always use the cardinal when the name is put before the numeral. G. B. J.

NEW QUERIES.—*Query 35*.—"Virtue held back his arm; but a milder form, a younger sister of Virtue's, not so severe as Virtue, nor so serious as Pity, smiled upon him; his fingers lost their compression; nor did Virtue appear to catch the money as it fell."

How is the word *Virtue's* parsed?

JERU.

Query 36.—Why is the presiding officer in the House of Representatives in the Congress of the United States called the *Speaker*?

F. M.

Query 37.—How should *had* in the following extracts be construed?

"Who receives them right
Had need from head to foot well understand."—*Paradise Lost*.

"The man that hails you Tom or Jack,
And proves, by thumps upon your back,
How he esteems your merit.
Is such a friend, that one *had* need
Be very much his friend indeed
To pardon or to bear it."—*Cowper's Friendship*.

We hope that our philosophical friends will not neglect Queries 27, 28 and 29, on page 40; nor our grammarians and philologists Queries 25, 30, 32, and 33. Will some body ask some more hard questions?

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

DOUGLAS CO. INSTITUTE will be held at Arcola, Monday, March 25th, continuing until Friday evening. Simeon Wright and T. R. Leal, and other teachers and lecturers, will be present.

EFFINGHAM CO. INSTITUTE is to be held the first week in April, at Effingham, beginning Tuesday, the 2d.

MARION COUNTY INSTITUTE.—This body held its first semi-annual session September 20th, 21st and 22d. A 'Drill' exercise in each of the several branches, except penmanship, was conducted by different teachers.

Lectures were delivered each evening, also, at the opening of the session. One or two essays, full of life, and suggestive hints for improvement, were read from the ladies' side.

The most exciting topic seemed to be the report of the committee on 'Uniform

Text-Books' for the county. The interest had been gathering for several months upon this. The report as submitted was as follows: Sanders's Primer, Spellers, and Readers, Wright's Orthography, Ray's Arithmetics, Pinneo's Grammars, Willson's U. S. Histories, and Cornell's Geographies.

As amended and adopted, the report stood: McGuffey's Primer and Readers, Sanders's Speller, Wright's Orthography, Ray's Arithmetics, Pinneo's Grammars, Goodrich's History, Cornell's Geographies, and Colburn's Mental Arithmetic. Much discussion was elicited on the merits of different school-books, and some light given, perhaps, as to what school-books should be, on the adoption of the report.

A library-case, which had been procured by the committee appointed for that purpose, with nearly a hundred volumes in it, donated by different publishers and the members, was before the Institute. It may be said truly that this presented a fine spectacle. This is a work of which the teachers of Marion county may justly be proud, though it is but just commenced.

Resolutions recommending music in schools, the introduction and trial of the 'phonetic system', Webster's Dictionary, and Lippincott's Gazetteer, as indispensable companions in the school-room, urging the coöperation of parents, and declaring women, for teaching just as men do, entitled to the same wages, were passed unanimously.

We were favored with those stars of the first magnitude, Newton Bateman and Simeon Wright. Mr. Bateman lectured on the evening of the 20th, on 'School Government'. Mr. Wright was with us on the 21st. Our local talent, too, was unexceptionable.

The last half-day's session was devoted to the examination of applicants for certificates.

A general good time was enjoyed, and adjournment made to meet at Centralia the 4th Saturday of October.

The session at Centralia was less interesting, on account of the absence of Mr. Bateman. A letter from him, however, giving reasons for not being present, was received, read, and accepted by the Institute.

Adjournment was made to meet at the call of the Executive Committee, who have, I believe, announced the 3d, 4th and 5th of April for the second semi-annual meeting. May some of our friends from abroad favor us with their presence and aid at that time.

We have commenced a noble work; if we only hold out faithful, keep the lamp trimmed and burning, we will have reason to rejoice for having done a great and good work.

A. L. M.

[The Secretary, Mr. A. L. Mills, has our thanks for the above report, which he was unavoidably prevented from sending early after the meetings reported.]

MENDOTA.—A sad calamity has befallen the Mendota Collegiate Institute, a private school owned by Rev. J. P. Henderson, at Mendota, in this State.

A singular illness appeared among the family of boarders, in January of this year, which became so general as to break up the school, and scatter the boarders to their homes. Some twenty or more boarded there. Early in February Mrs. L. P. Paddock, a teacher, died, and on the 18th of February Mr. Henderson died. The school is thus completely broken up. Others have been very sick, and

one pupil died. We can not give a positive cause for the sickness. It was evidently local in its origin, as the general health of the town has been good. One account represents it as the opinion of some that the cause was using the well last summer to hang meat, butter and other provisions in, with a probable dropping of some of the articles in the water.

Mr. Henderson was the pastor of the Old-School Presbyterian Church, a man of great energy and zeal in whatever he undertook. His death will be severely felt by a variety of interests.

B.

CHAMPAIGN CITY.—The following item, from the *Central Illinois Gazette*, shows what the people now have to do to sustain their schools for the six months required by the law:

Tax-Payers' Meeting.—Last Thursday evening the tax-payers of school-district No. 2 met at the school-house on the east side of the track, to take into consideration what should be done concerning the school, as there is some talk of discontinuing it. The treasury is empty, and likely to remain so if the bill deferring the collection of last year's taxes until next fall is passed by the Legislature.

As the teachers do not propose to wait so very long for their pay, a meeting was called, and it was unanimously agreed upon collecting this school-tax immediately, in order that the school should continue. The following are the minutes of the meeting:

On motion, Mr. S. W. McKnow was chosen chairman, and Matthew W. Romine secretary.

On motion, the tax-payers present voted unanimously for paying their school-taxes as soon as possible, for the purpose of paying the money already due the teachers of said district.

On motion, James S. Wright, Israel Lanhead and David Clark were appointed as a committee for visiting the tax-payers not present, and informing them of the proceedings of the meeting, and requesting them to pay their school-taxes as soon as possible.

CHILDREN SCARCE IN EGYPT.—In a conversation recently with Mr. Wm. J. Yost, County Clerk and School Commissioner of Alexander county, in this State, he informed us that there was one district in his county which paid \$57.50 for the education of two urchins six weeks. The school-system being carried on and supported by a tax, the people of this district determined to have the benefit of their money. Not having a child in their neighborhood large enough to attend school they borrowed the two above alluded to from an adjoining district. We suggest this as a desirable spot for our newly-married people to locate. We wish they could be accommodated with some of the superabundance of incipient humanity of this locality.

We find the above in the *Peoria Transcript*. We think Mr. Yost must be a great joker—or Alexander a most remarkable country.

FREEPORT SCHOOLS.—I was much interested recently during a day's examination of the Public Schools of this city. A new school-house has just been built—one of the neatest, best-contrived, and most beautiful in the State, and the people very justly feel proud of it. And it is *useful* as well as ornamental. We found some real, live teachers there—Mr. Hicks, and Miss Slocumb, and Miss E. E. Crocker, of the Normal University, with others whose names we can not recall.

But, while comparisons might seem invidious, we wish to speak a special word of commendation for an intermediate school under charge of Miss Ingersoll, and the High School with Mr. George L. Montague at the head. In this last institution

we saw a perfection of discipline, an accuracy of definition and detail, and an insight into the central ideas of things, truly refreshing to one accustomed to the humdrum word-mongering and word-murdering of our ordinary schools. The black-board was used freely in all the recitations; the classes in Latin, after a comparatively short drill, showed a thorough knowledge of the tongue, and its connection with English, which a majority of our mushroom 'Universities' never dreamed of; and all the recitations, so far as we heard them, were of the same high character. Really-efficient teachers are sadly like angels' visits; and we think the good people of Freeport have abundant reason to be thankful for their singular blessings in this respect. It behooves Rockford, Jacksonville, and other Sucker cities, to look well to their laurels.

T.

HE WOULD N'T TREAT TO WHISKY.—A conscientious school-teacher, by the name of John Rutledge, who is teaching a few miles north of this place, near Zanesville, was on Christmas-day, we are informed, earnestly solicited to treat, as is the custom in the West for teachers to do. He willingly would have done so, but finding that it was their wish to have him go with them to a grog-shop and treat to whisky, he declined; whereupon he was fastened out of his school-room.

On the following morning he went, as usual, to resume his position as teacher, and again found the door barred against him. He then visited the Trustees, two of whom returned to the school-house with him and *went in*. As soon as Mr. Rutledge entered he was collared by some one *a la* Sayers, who commenced to beat him. The teacher, not relishing this part of the joke, thought it just to defend his person, and shot his antagonist, bringing him to his knees on the floor; but the shot being too fine, his penitential position soon changed to an erect one with another assault; whereupon the empty pistol was applied to his soft cranium, which would have finished his career had not the Trustees interfered. In the affray one of the Trustees was wounded in the finger by a shot from the revolver.

Mr. Rutledge was taken to Litchfield, where he has his trial. We understand he was bound over to court in the sum of \$500, and the Trustees went his bail.

If we have been informed correctly, and our information came from a reliable source, we glory in Mr. Rutledge's spunk. We guess his Christmas treat will long be remembered by his pupils.

Hillsboro Free Press, Jan. 10th.

ILLINOIS COLLEGE.—We have received the Triennial Catalogue of this institution, which is at Jacksonville, and finding a suitable notice written in the *Jacksonville Journal*, we appropriate it, as follows:

The Triennial Catalogue of this institution has just been issued from the press. The number of students in attendance during the academical year is one hundred and nineteen, being nearly the same as last year. The hard times operate against the prosperity of such educational institutions, as against all other enterprises. The high character and increasing popularity of the College, and especially its new policy of giving prominence to scientific studies, will secure for it a largely-increased list of students whenever the times become financially easy.

From the Triennial we learn that one hundred and seventy young men have graduated at the College, seventy-nine others having also received honorary degrees. Thirty-six have graduated as Bachelors of Science, this department having been inaugurated but a few years. The number of preachers educated at the institution is fifty-four, forty-nine of whom are now living and filling spheres of usefulness in all parts of the world. Hon. Richard Yates was the first graduate, receiving his degree from the hands of President Beecher in 1835. President Sturtevant was inaugurated in 1844, Mr. Beecher assuming a pastorate in Boston. The success of the College in maintaining its ground, and rising year by year to a securer position and larger influence, in spite of political, ecclesiastical and financial obstacles, is, in large measure, owing to the unfaltering faith, self-sacrificing zeal and indomitable energy of the present President.

REPORT OF THE BLIND ASYLUM—*Sixth Biennial Report of the Illinois Institution for the Blind.*—This Report lies before us. From it we learn that on November 30, 1860, there were 61 pupils in the school. The expenses for the years 1859 and 1860 were \$28,873.96.

Those who think only of what they could do themselves if blind would be surprised to know what those always blind are capable of doing. The male pupils make brooms and brushes, and weave carpets, using edge-tools with facility. The female pupils sew, knit, and make various fancy-work. "A blind child will learn to read as soon as one who sees." The library for the blind consists of books printed with raised type, as they *feel* the words instead of seeing them. Every blind person of suitable age should have the advantage of training in such a school. On this point, Dr. Rhoads, the Principal, makes remarks which we heartily indorse as applied to other children sent from home to school. "My experience also freely warrants me in asserting that a child remaining until the age of twelve years in its 'home, however homely', would arrive at maturity more learned, more amiable, and more active, than if placed in an institution conducted in the best manner and with the utmost attention to the details of its management. Nothing of equal value can be substituted for the home-life of a young child." The State pays all expenses of pupils. Letters regarding admission of any should be addressed to 'Dr. Joshua Rhoads, Jacksonville, Illinois.' *

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

ANALYTIC ELOCUTION: an Analysis of the Powers of the Voice, for the purpose of Expression in Speaking; illustrated by copious examples, and marked by a system of notation. Designed for the use of schools, colleges, and private students. By J. C. Zachos, A.M., author of the *New American Speaker*, etc. New York: A. S. Barnes & Burr. Cincinnati: Riekey, Mallory & Co. 8vo. pp. 320.

We should like to say more respecting this book and the subject of it than we can properly present here. In the *Introduction*, Prof. Zachos makes a bold and strong onset upon some of our opinions. He refers to the views of Dr. Whately as set forth in the chapters on Elocution in the *Rhetoric* of that author, whom he thinks to have done much damage by giving the influence of his name and character against the study of Elocution. He cites Dr. Whately's words and reasons against them, denying both his premises and his arguments. We do not know but that Prof. Zachos may have beaten the Archbishop in the argument; yet we are unconvinced on the main point at issue, and have for years held opinions identical in result with Dr. Whately's; opinions which we adopted without reading the Doctor's chapters, and which will not yield upon the overthrow of all his arguments. We can not forget a single fact; that the best speakers *we* have ever heard were not trained by elocutionists, and that those whom it pains us most to listen to have been. It may be said that the same arguments that are brought against elocution can be brought against all other training: we will not dispute it, but will go so much further as to say that a very large portion of the 'training' in reading and grammar in all our schools is entirely wasted; and if teachers have not found it out, some of the common people have. At the late dedication of the Normal-School building we heard the remark that it was strange

that the best speeches were made by the very men who lamented that they had not had the advantages of education.

Now this does not prove that an education is of no practical value, but only that power without training succeeds better than training without power. And we are ready to admit that there is much training possible in the line of elocution that will not injure, but will help the speaker, *if* he knows how to use it. The main trouble here, as in the matter of style in writing, is that many mistake the form of strength for strength itself; and because men who are much moved with passion speak in a certain *way*, they think that if they do but speak in the same way they shall produce the same effect as they would if really stirred by the passion. And we are forced to believe that declamation in schools leads constantly and powerfully to this very error, and whether it is the *necessary* result or not, we can not but believe that the *actual* result of the training that is given is to make pompous spouters instead of easy speakers.

But Prof. Zachos urges that this bad result is not the result of good training, but of blunderingly-bad training; and he offers his book as a help toward the good training. We hope it may prove so: it certainly contains much that is excellent and useful. We are much pleased with the first chapter, on Phonology, which contains a very interesting discussion of the subject of *stammering*, and the cure of that difficulty. Chapter II, on Sentences, is valuable, as philosophy; and parts of it can be of practical value. Scanning and Rhythm, Inflection and Melody, Stress and Force, Qualities of Voice, Emphasis, and Gesture,—these are the titles of the remaining chapters of the work, each of which is divided into sections on various sub-subjects.

The book is well printed, and on fine paper; and we commend it to those wishing a work on this subject.

THE FIRST BOOK OF THE CONSTITUTION; a Familiar Exposition of the Constitution of the United States. Designed for the use of schools. By Furman Sheppard. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 12mo. pp. 202. 84 cents; cheap edition, 50 cents.

Mr. Sheppard is the author of a larger work on the same subject, from which this is abridged with some modifications. We spoke last month of the importance of the study of the Constitution of our country, and of a pervading ignorance of its provisions. Such conviction has grown upon us for years, and is no less at this period of convulsion. We rejoice to see that the thoughts of the people are turned to the subject, and that such books as this are prepared for the instruction of those who need a simple but comprehensive interpreter and commentator on the Constitution. This book is admirably adapted to the use of schools of the grade to which such a study is proper. The work from which this is an abridgment has been highly commended by many jurists, including justices of the U. S. Supreme Court. They could not, perhaps, speak of its fitness for schools so readily as men of inferior knowledge of the main subject, and of that we speak when we say that it possesses in great degree the qualities of clearness, simplicity, directness, and accuracy. It is enriched with a good index, and disfigured with questions to help lazy teachers hear recitations. We can never commend a book without disparaging comment if we see it furnished with questions. We are pleased to say it is the only fault we have to find with the book in any respect.

ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

APRIL, 1861.

NUMBER 4.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

IF the system of Free Schools is to succeed, the public mind must be directed, more earnestly than ever before, to the subject of primary instruction. Misapprehension of the nature and importance of right elementary teaching has been as general as it has been unaccountable and disastrous. Where thousands have been lavished upon the superstructure of the educational edifice, hundreds have been grudgingly bestowed upon the foundation; while no grace or beauty has been spared for the embellishment of the former, the rudest materials and workmanship have been deemed sufficient for the latter. The effect of this upon the scholarship of the country, present and future, needs no comment. It is one of the most hopeful indications of the times, that the attention of many of the best minds in the country is being drawn into this field of inquiry.

The fundamental error lies in ignorance, or false views, of the laws of mental growth and development. The *senses* are the pioneers of all knowledge. The dawn and activity of the perceptive powers are always antecedent to those of the reflective. The eye is the child's first teacher—the ear its next; and for several years the chief work of education is to cultivate these organs. The child, in its first gaze upon the strange, new world into which it has entered, meets an 'object lesson'; and long before the tongue has learned to lisp the simplest forms of speech, the eye has traced the outlines of a thousand objects, and reveled in the beauty of their ever-varying forms and colors. The first accents of love that fall upon the ear reveal another source of exquisite enjoyment, thrilling the little spirit with perennial delight long before it can utter an articulate sound, or distinguish the

first note of the gamut. The other senses lend their aid in leading the mind to an acquaintance with the external world, and assist to inaugurate the incipient process of education; but the eye and ear are the royal avenues to the brain—through them, more than all other agencies, the first treasures of knowledge are garnered up, and the intellect is launched upon its career of eternal progress.

To the child all things are new and strange. An insatiable curiosity impels him, from morning till night, to push his discoveries amid the mysteries of the outer world. He has a thirst for knowledge which nothing can quench. He flies from object to object with tireless ardor, examining the structure and properties of each, and tasking the skill and patience of his friends with a thousand questions. He tears the rose in pieces, or dashes a toy to atoms, not because he is 'naughty', but because he can not rest till he *knows* more about it—till he 'sees what is inside'. He ceases to do these things when he is older, not because he is a *better* boy, but a wiser one—his curiosity is satisfied. He soon learns the names, properties and uses of all there is in the house, and longs to be 'out of doors'. He loves nature with enthusiasm—her protean forms and ever-unfolding beauties are correlated to the cravings of his own spirit—she calls him, and he flies to her embrace. His whole being is in close sympathy with the outward, the material. He observes and remembers: the time for ratiocination has not yet come.

These are the universal characteristics of healthy, well-endowed childhood—the fundamental postulates, the axiomatic truths, in accordance with which the early training of children should be conducted. We must *avail* ourselves of these well-known facts and self-evident principles. Instead of trying to make philosophers of children, which is impossible, we should seek to make accurate observers of them, which is possible, and the foundation of all true philosophy. Instead of trying to force them to a knowledge of the intellectual world, through books and dissertations and brain-work, we should lead them forth into the magnificence of the material world, through the senses. Instead of bidding them open their minds to receive the wisdom of man through the dry dogmas of abstract science, we should simply bid them open their eyes and ears, and let the wisdom of God flow in through the omnipresent beauty of the grass-clad earth and glory-tinted skies. Instead of bending the mind and soul and body of the child to a preconceived theory of education, only to accomplish a result more sad than ignorance itself, we should simply follow the path indicated by the finger of God as the immutable course of all mental development.

Many of the boasted discoveries of the age, in the science of teaching, are mere changes, not improvements. Many who talk loudly of progress are only marking time — stirring, not advancing. But the methods of primary instruction recently introduced into this country from Germany, and extensively adopted in our best schools, are not of this character. They are changes from the false to the true, and worthy of all that has been said in their favor, and a great deal more. I refer to the recognition of the principles which have just been briefly sketched — that it is the facts and objects of the outer or material world with which we must first deal, and that the formation of habits of close and accurate observation is the great work of the elementary teacher. ‘Object lessons’, as they are termed, form an important part of this improved method of primary teaching. Some familiar thing, as a book or watch, is selected by the teacher as the subject of the lesson. Attention is called to its several parts, with their names, the materials of which it is composed, with their sources, and the place and manner in which it is made. Its various uses, etc., are also explained. A great variety of questions relating to the object are asked by the teacher and children, and many points are suggested to the latter, upon which they are to seek further information from their parents, or older brothers and sisters. The important point to be noticed here is, that the article is present; its form, color, and parts, are seen as they are described. The knowledge acquired by children is, therefore, concrete, not abstract. The number of different things which can thus be brought to contribute to the purposes of instruction is unlimited, and the children will take great delight in bringing their offerings, since even the dullest finds he can take part in the exercise and add to the interest of the class. Natural objects may be used in a similar manner, a simple leaf, or flower, or pebble, affording ample scope and interest for many lessons.

Thus a spirit of inquiry and a healthy desire for useful information are awakened. The amount of valuable information communicated in this manner is very great. It is positive knowledge, not mere words representing knowledge. A thousand facts are thus secured to the mind, which, though learned repeatedly from books, would, almost inevitably, be quickly and hopelessly forgotten. So wide is the difference between passive reception and eager grasping. Children six years of age, who have been taught by this process, often exhibit an acquaintance with the familiar objects of common life not possessed by persons of maturer years and far greater pretensions to scholarship.

But the mere information gained, valuable as it is, is the least benefit accruing from this method of instruction. The attention of the

child is arrested, his mind is interested, his mental faculties are quickened into vigorous yet normal activity—the impressions received are vivid and enduring. Instead of the listlessness and stupefaction produced by the dreary, monotonous repetition, all day long, of A, B, C, the eye is bright, the face radiant with pleasure, the movements elastic, and the whole being instinct with life. The child is thoroughly awake, because the teaching is natural, sensible, and philosophical.

The power and habit of accurate observation, of nice discrimination, and correct judgment, are among the best fruits of teaching by object lessons. Every one must have observed the astonishing difference in the ability of different persons in these respects. There are thousands who, having eyes, see not, and having ears, hear not. They walk amid the clustering glories of the earth or beneath the star-jeweled draperies of the heavens, but perceive them not. The cadence and swell of music, the eternal anthem of the solemn sea, the silvery minstrelsy of birds, roll and die upon the echoing air in vain; they only hear a noise! In the domain of trees and flowers, so full of the poetry of form and motion, so exquisite with the touch and tracery of the finger of God, their enthusiasm is epitomized in the words of the poet:

“ A primrose by the river's brim
A *yellow* primrose was to *him*,
And it was nothing more.”

They look upon the most gorgeous sunset and only know that there are clouds in the west from which, perchance, they predict rain on the morrow! The ingenuity of the mechanic, the taste and skill of the architect, the artist, the landscape-gardener, and the florist, are lost upon them. They may travel round the globe and they will be but little the wiser, while the keen vision and responsive ear of others find fitness, joy, and beauty, every where. Now, to a great extent, this loss of untold profit and pleasure to one class and gain to the other is due to the fact that the former do not know how to see and hear, the latter do. In the one case the eye and ear have not been cultivated, the habit of close observation has not been formed. So the vague sense of beauty which seems to be innate to childhood has been buried beneath the rubbish of life; the faculties of observation and discrimination have become rusty through disuse. In the other case the law of growth by use has been illustrated; every sense and faculty is kept fresh and keen, and has gathered power from year to year.

What can act upon the discriminating faculty, so like a whetstone upon steel, as the daily process of analyzing, comparing, separating and uniting different things and parts of things by means of object lessons? Not a peculiarity of shape or contour, not a principle of

combination, adjustment, or grouping, not a shade of variation in color or tint, but is observed and noted. The importance of an early development of this habit of careful and minute observation; the extent to which it may be carried, in all cases, by proper training in early childhood; the impossibility of accomplishing it if neglected in youth; the manifold pleasures and benefits to be derived all through life from its exercise — these are arguments in favor of object lessons in primary schools, the force of which seems to me irresistible.

An incidental advantage attending the use of object lessons is the opportunity which it gives for discovering the peculiar aptitudes of different pupils. A taste for the natural sciences, for drawing, coloring, mechanics, etc., may be brought to light, and receive an impulse the results of which are brilliant and lasting. Moreover, many will be led to appreciate the value of certain kinds of knowledge which would otherwise seem unattractive and little worth.

But it may be objected that children are sent to primary schools to learn their A, B, Cs, not to spend their time upon object lessons. The reply is, that not only is all the information and all the discipline of the senses acquired in that way *clear gain*, but the alphabet and all the rudiments of books taught by the old method can be and are mastered in much less time, and with vastly more pleasure and ease, than when the latter are the exclusive studies of the primary schools. The reason is obvious. The mind is relieved, refreshed, by the interest and pleasure excited by the object lessons, and returns to the alphabet or the book with tenfold zest and spirit, and will accomplish in five minutes more than it would have done in half an hour without the relaxation, and far more thoroughly. The idea of expecting children who can not read, or who do not even know their letters, to *study*, is simply absurd. They do not know how to study — they have no command of the necessary means and agencies. We might as well place all the tools of a carpenter before an apprentice who has just entered the shop to learn his trade, and tell him to go to work, as to place a book with the twenty-six letters of the alphabet in the hands of a child and tell him to keep still and study. It is absurd. How can he study? What will he study? How will he go about it? He may be compelled to sit and keep his eyes upon his book, but he might just as well have his feet in the stocks and his eyes upon the moon. He could study just as well by shutting his book and looking upon the cover, and with much less damage to his eyes and — to his book. And as to requiring the child to keep perfectly still while he has nothing to do, it is difficult to avoid the use of strong language against such folly and cruelty. All that the little martyr can do is to go to sleep, and even

this refuge is usually denied him. If there are degrees in human folly, surely that must be in the superlative which would shut up a troop of little children in a close room six hours a day and compel them to be perfectly still, on pain of chastisement, while there is not a single thing for them to do, nothing to interest mind or heart. If, then, teachers will persist in trying to impart a knowledge of the alphabet by the exclusive use of the old dreary monotonous repetition, a-b-c, let object lessons be added to the exercises, by all means. It will shorten the time necessary for the mastery by at least one-half.

The slate and blackboard are also indispensable instruments in primary teaching. Drawing has too long been regarded as an accomplishment, to be acquired only by the few; it should be deemed a necessity, and the elements, at least, be acquired by the many. I have long been of the opinion that the elements of linear and mechanical drawing should be included in the common-school course, and that the former, at least, should be commenced in the primary department. Beginning with the straight line, let the class be taught to draw it, first as a horizontal, next as a perpendicular, then at all the intermediate angles. Let them afterward try to divide the line by the eye, without measurement, into two, three, or more, equal parts, till they can do it promptly and well. Then take up the curves, the circle, and the simple geometrical figures, etc. Great progress can be made in these elements by very young children, and, besides the immense advantage to them in life, they will take great interest in the exercise. The letters of the alphabet furnish an admirable series of exercises in drawing. Nearly all the primary movements, as straight lines—perpendicular, horizontal, oblique,—curves, etc., are involved in their formation. Especially is this true of the capitals. Some of the best teachers of the art employ them as copies, even for more advanced pupils. For primary scholars it is an excellent training for the eye and hand, and, while imparting knowledge and skill in the elements of drawing, it *incidentally* fixes the name and shape of each letter indelibly in the memory; for, when a child has learned to draw a letter correctly, and to associate with it its proper name, he will not forget it. Thus, while the eye and hand are being trained to skill, while the first principles of a noble and useful art are being thoroughly learned, while the mind is pleasantly excited and interested, instead of being wearied and stupefied, the alphabet itself is completely mastered—incidentally, almost unconsciously. The names of the letters are not only more permanently learned in this way than by the old routine repetition process, but in less than half the time. This is not theory, but fact. It has been demonstrated by a thousand trials. That such an amount of

precious time is annually wasted in the effort to print the mere names of the twenty-six characters of our language upon the memory of the child, by the endless iteration of a-b-c, would be ludicrous, if it were not so sad. Not only one, but several school-terms are often squandered, before the stupendous result is achieved! And when at last the victory is won, how poor and barren it is! the child can call the names of twenty-six crooked, dry, unmeaning things! that is all. No mental power has been developed; no new faculty has been awakened; no new pleasure has mingled in the weary task: the mind is deadened, almost stupefied; the child is disgusted with his book and tired of school; but he *knows his letters*, and great is the rejoicing of friends! There is, thank God, 'a more excellent way'. It is difficult to over-estimate the good effects of a judicious use of the slate and blackboard in primary schools. No school-room for small children is equipped without them — no one is fit to be a primary teacher who is unable or unwilling to use them.

Hon. N. BATEMAN'S Report, 1860, pp. 51-57.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

IN this State Teachers' Institutes have formed an item for notice in the last two Biennial Reports from the State Department of Public Instruction. They are recognized as essential to the welfare of schools and the growth of teachers. Yet Institutes have not yet succeeded in drawing in and benefiting so many of our teachers as they should, nor have they every where continued to elicit that enthusiasm with which they began among us. For this various causes exist, some of which we name.

Our school law does not secure for School Commissioners men of capability to conduct or arrange Institutes, or of zeal in education to use the knowledge they have, or of extra patriotic benevolence to do a great deal of work for which the law makes no compensation. Where the Commissioner is either ignorant, opposed to Institutes, or indisposed to do any thing for them, it is no easy matter to get a good Institute in any county under the present system. The few teachers who know what to do can not well put themselves forward to do what is needed without exciting the jealousy of those around them who have not yet learned how little they themselves know. Hence, in counties we could name, in which is ample home-talent for conducting excellent and profitable Institutes, there is almost or quite utter fail-

ure to sustain creditable Institutes, because no one can be leader without creating jealousies except the Commissioner, and he will not or can not lead.

Another cause for unsatisfactory Institutes is the want of means to conduct them. In a number of cases County Courts or Boards of Supervisors have made ample provision for paying expenses of an Institute, but this has been done with great irregularity, and has, so far, failed to develop a regular system of Institutes. In counties where the teachers have been enthusiastic enough to resolve upon regular semi-annual or annual Institutes, the means for them have been exceedingly unreliable, and the few who determined they should be sustained have been made to bear a pretty heavy burden. Thus we know of one county which appropriated \$100 for an Institute, then for at least two years appropriated nothing, then appropriated \$100 again. Another gave \$200 for a single session, we learned, and since has allowed the teachers to get along without any help. Another still gave \$200 in the year '59, and \$100 in the year '60. Another yet in former years gave liberally, then dropped off all aid, and has this year granted aid again.

Another cause for the slow and fitful advance of Institute organization is partly the result of those we have named. It is hard to get the right men to conduct them. The Institutes are not able to secure good men at home or abroad. At home the men who know how to do the work can leave other duties only to a limited extent, and when they do, can not often be paid adequately. Still less frequently can means be raised to secure talent from other States. To a very great extent the work hence falls into the hands of cheap lecturers, with whom the subject-matter is of little consequence if they can only have 'a good time'. We hear of a lecturer who has talked a great deal at Institutes, who says he cares little whether he is called on to talk on Education or '——' (another popular subject); that he can put in '——' where he has 'Education', or 'Education' where he has '——', and make it go all right. We can not learn that he ever taught a day in his life. Some counties are compelled by poverty of means to select conductors for their Institutes by the number of dollars for which they can afford to come in stead of the amount of skill and knowledge they can use for the benefit of the assembled teachers. Enough of causes for the present condition of things. The State Superintendent saw plainly the necessities of the matter, and asked an appropriation for carrying on Institutes by the State. The House passed the bill, but in the Committee of the Senate some gentlemen, with mistaken views we think, struck out the appropriation from the

bill, and the aid WAS REFUSED. The teachers are thus thrown back upon local effort for the next two years. Their own efforts, backed by such aid as county boards or courts may give them, are all they can rely on. We trust at the end of this time our Legislature will not be willing to lag so far behind New York, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island.

How are our Institutes to be made most effective *now*? We do not see that in all cases such work can be secured that the best teachers will be benefited by Institutes. An Institute is much like a school, and we hold that 'a poor school is WORSE than none'. Associations of teachers for interchange of views can be formed in new regions, can be strengthened in old ones. In some cases men can be secured to conduct valuable drill exercises, to do for teachers here what the leaders in Music, and Arithmetic, and Geography, and Reading, have done in the States of the East. Then let it be done. Where means can be had, the very best men are to be called on—not for lectures merely, but for giving drill exercises in actual school-room work. Our best workmen will not be found wanting when called on to lecture. Too much care has heretofore been expended on the lectures for the general public, leaving for working teachers only the scraps and crumbs of the feast prepared for literary criticism, and to gratify the taste of the public visitors.

In most instances, the teachers who have gathered have had occasion to thank the citizens where they have met for their hospitality in entertaining them. This is well; but the fact of such generous hospitality has given form to the exercises of Institutes. Teachers very often need to be in Institutes longer than is convenient for their entertainers to keep them. It is no small inconvenience for families, however favorably disposed, to make the comfort of strangers superior to their own business and occupations for a time long enough for teachers to be much benefited. Few teachers like to stay as a burden, and so sessions are cut down to two or three days, much of this short time being occupied with matter of no earthly value to them on their return to their labors. At the risk of naming the matter before circumstances permit carrying out such plan, we will indicate our preferences for the mode of conducting an Institute. Let the Institute be a short Normal School, from two to six weeks in continuation. Let all who participate form themselves into classes, and let the conducting teachers show by practice the governing and managing of a school as well as the presentation of facts. Let teachers pay their board and tuition as they would if they attended the Musical Institute in Chicago, New York, or North-Reading. These Musical Institutes, under

charge of such men as Mason, Root, or our own Cady, draw out and train for weeks the music-teachers of widely-extended regions. We want these in addition to the brief Institutes of two or three or five days which we now have. Possibly during the summer vacations something of this kind might be accomplished. One such at least was held many years ago in the State of Wisconsin, continuing six weeks. It is practicable to secure at that time the help of men who are during the rest of the year busy in the school-room.

It was our privilege in the early part of our teaching to attend in one of the large cities a six-weeks Normal School, conducted by the City Superintendent and principals of the leading schools. The expense was double what teachers would need to meet in smaller places, but we have never begrudged the cost of that session. A two-weeks Institute thus conducted once in a year, or even two years, in a county, or by two or three combined, would perhaps draw smaller crowds, but would raise the standard of education and teachers' qualifications much faster than can be done by effort as now generally directed.

No Institute, however short, should be conducted without a regular plan, and prompt work. This is the only way to prevent teachers' going home feeling that 'Institutes do n't pay'. J. H. BLODGETT.

AMBOY, MARCH 19, 1861.

ERRORS IN SPEECH.—NUMBER II.

FOR the present article there is reserved the fifth of A. W.'s corrections of what he considers to be errors in speech. It is thus given in his own language :

"5. Possessive nouns and pronouns should not be placed before participles. The form of speech is unphilosophical, and incapable of justification. There can be no possession in the case. The expressions 'my doing the act', 'his dying', 'your pushing forward the enterprise', and the like, are solecisms."

It is hard to tell at what point one should begin to attack such a fabrication of error as the passage I have quoted. It is the more difficult because the extent to which the writer would apply his prohibition is not evident: but his use of the example 'his dying', as well as his remark that he objects to such constructions because 'there can be no possession in the case', allows us to say that he claims that a verbal formed from a verb and ending in *ing* (and not signifying the

thing made by the action of the verb, as *building*, etc.) can not properly be used as a noun with the limitation or modification of a possessive noun or pronoun. If he had not given the example 'his dying', I should have supposed, or at least have allowed in the argument, that he meant only that a verbal in *ing* when modified by adverbial or objective elements may not also be modified or limited by possessives; but as the word *dying* has no other modifier than the possessive, and thus has no evidence from the construction that it is a verbal at all, his prohibition must be made general and considered to extend to all verbals ending in *ing* not signifying the effect of an action or what is produced by it, as *building*, *shearing*, *coating*, *savings*, *learning*, etc.

The first appeal is in all cases not to philosophy, not to theoretical grammar, not to what grammarians have said, but to the language itself. What do authors write? That is the question: we can afford to look for philosophy when we have found out what is the real usage of the language. I offer the following quotations in evidence:

THE BIBLE.—His appearing—your arguing—their backsliding—thy bidding—our boasting—your boasting—whose breaking—my breathing—my casting-down—my coming (*twice*)—their coming—thy coming (*5 times*)—his coming (*10 times*)—his crying—his cursing—my departing—his doing (*twice*)—the Lord's doing (*3 times*)—my down-sitting and mine up-rising—my preaching—her raging—your rejoicing—their rejoicing—my sighing. These instances have been obtained by the aid of a concordance, on looking through the words beginning with a, b, c, d, p, r, and s; and numerous examples were omitted against which it was thought some objection might be attempted.

SHAKESPEARE.—*Tempest*.—His hanging—my spriting—thy trembling—your shaking—my rejoicing—my ending. *Merchant of Venice*.—My deserving—my breathing—my shedding—your coming—their coming—our being absent. *Hamlet*.—Thy asking—your own inclining—your smiling—his seeming—your sudden coming o'er—your own grinning—my disclaiming from a purposed evil. *Macbeth*.—Stand not upon the order of your going. *Othello*.—The head and front of my offending. *Romeo and Juliet*.—One fire burns out another's burning. *Twelfth Night*.—Journeys end in lovers' meeting.

MILTON.—*Par. Lost*, Bks. ii, iii.—His rising—Their rising all at once—my opening—their making—his second bidding.

SWIFT.—*Gulliver's Travels*.—My breaking loose—my leaving

this kingdom—my falling over—his not dashing out the brains—my alighting—by every person's giving his own word—the stranger's often looking on me—offence at his keeping a Yahoo—their landing—our landing—my first coming over.

ADDISON AND STEELE.—*Spectator*.—His being unconfined—the Knight's asking him who preached—my looking dissatisfied—my passing so much of my time—her covering it—the Knight's conjuring me to tell him—my residing in these parts—their own . . . thinking these accomplishments unnecessary—the young lady's expressing her satisfaction—my asking her who it was—his man's telling him—the fellow's telling him—his presenting himself—our interpreter's telling us—Hermione's going off—his stroking her little boy upon the head.

WHATELY.—*Lessons on Mind, Chaps. i-v.*—A spirit's appearing—their thinking that it could be employed—their doing what they have been taught—their acting in this manner—our feeling such things—their being incapable—man's having no natural notion—our deriving all our notions—our speaking of God.

SCOTT.—*Heart of Mid-Lothian*.—His father's going abroad—his having been concerned—Effie's lingering when she was sent—his seeing the working of his countenance—his observing their absence—his requesting to speak with Effie Deans—your not having taken your flight—magistrate's knowing the features and dress—your setting out to seek your dwelling—your acting under compulsion—its taking place—her interrupting the strain—his being implicated—without my finding him.

HAWTHORNE.—*House of Seven Gables*.—Any man's asserting a right—its ultimately forming a principedom—as to Phoebe's not being a lady—his having drawn breath—the fact of his not being a church-communicant, and the suspicion of his holding heretical tenets—your falling asleep—his confining himself—his volunteering information—their devoting themselves to studies.

O. W. HOLMES.—*Autocrat of the Breakfast Table*.—As to clever people's hating each other—my saying what some of these opinions are—your having them pass through your mind—laugh with either half his face without the other half's knowing it—doctrine of the brain's being a double organ—the old man's sudden breaking out—the whole world's crying out against you—Cuvier's getting up a megatherium from a tooth, or Agassiz's drawing a portrait of an un-

discovered fish—a man's growing lean—his horse's cocking his ears—telling her about life's declining from thirty-five.

DICKENS.—*Little Dorrit*.—Their having seen the lady—his immediately afterward presenting himself—his imparting the news—its being opened—her never taking her eyes off—his making himself so easy—Mr. Merdle's saying something—their not looking after those interests—that young gentleman's making a dreary and forlorn spectacle of himself—Fanny's being at home—his having ever had any knowledge—his not arriving—her being spent—Mr. Pancks's being so sanguine—Flora's insisting on her drinking a glass of wine—his knowing so much—on his saying so—its being his birthday—his intimating that he feared—his wife's calling to him—On Arthur's speaking to her of his going to inform Pancks—on that gentleman's humbly representing that he exerted himself. (I have marked twice as many more of the same sort in this volume.)

DEQUINCEY.—*The Spanish Nun*.—Her decapitating in battle several of the King's enemies—Kate's agreeing to undertake the management—its being an English buccaneer—insisted on Kate's making a home of his quarters—his being so utterly in the dark.

The foregoing citations, from eleven different authors beside the translators of the Bible, and from books bearing date from about 1590 up to 1858, are sufficient to prove a usage deep-rooted in the language: it is a part of the language, and can no more be reckoned an error of speech than the use of *its* for *his* as the possessive pronoun, 3d pers. sing. neuter. Every scholar in our language knows that *its* was once an innovation, *his* being the proper word; and a purist of 300 years ago could not but oppose it: it was a barbarism as great as would now be the use of *she's* for *her*. But it is now English of the best: and so we must say of the use of the verbal in *ing* as a gerundive. We shall all take sides with Shakspeare, Milton, Addison, Swift, Steele, Scott, Whately, Holmes, Hawthorne, Dickens, De Quincey, and the mass of English writers and the millions that speak the English tongue, against the A.W.s and Goold Browns that call such constructions solecisms.

But A.W. says it is *unphilosophical*. "There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dreamt of in *your* philosophy." It is the business of the philosopher to seek first for facts, and then to make his philosophy accord with them. So it is the duty of the philosopher who deals with language to ascertain its usages; and then, by study of the laws of the operation of mind and of the instinctive expression

of those operations, to ascertain its true philosophy. I believe and will maintain that *no form of speech has ever obtained currency or can ever obtain currency, even as a provincialism, which is not philosophical.* Speech is the natural product of the human mind, formed according to its laws: and every form of speech which obtains currency in any community must be not the whim of a single mind, but the offspring of human minds, and in accordance with laws of mind which the philosopher must ascertain and set forth.

But why is this form unphilosophical? Perhaps A.W. gives as reason his statement "there can be no *possession* in the case." So Gould Brown says that the possessive should not be used with the participle as above, because "the participle is not the name of any thing that can be possessed." The fallacy of this argument is in assuming that the possessive can be used as a limiting word only to denote possession. Certainly the leading office of the possessive is to denote possession; but that is not its only office. I am accustomed to give the rule or principle for the use of the possessive thus: "A noun or pronoun used to limit another noun or pronoun by denoting possession, origin, or appurtenance, must have the possessive form." I am not, however, as yet, sure that all instances of the proper use of the possessive can be ranked under those three specifications, though I have not thought of any that can not be so ranked. When the merchant advertises 'ladies' bonnets and children's shoes', he does not indicate that ladies or children possess the bonnets or shoes, but the possessive indicates a certain relation of appurtenance or suitability that we understand from usage. If I say 'my friend', it is true that I imply that I *have* a friend; yet the real purpose of the possessive is to denote a relation, which, including the indications given by the word *friend*, is rather that of friendship than of possession. Brown, arguing against certain inconsistencies of others, says: "For the possessive case before a real participle denotes not the possessor of something, as in other instances, but the agent of the action, or the subject of the being or passion." (Gram. of Gram., p. 504.) Now a careful examination of undisputedly legitimate uses of the possessive will show that in them the possessive denotes the agent of an action, and thus shows Brown's objection to be fallacious and insufficient.

I read Macaulay's essays on 'Milton' and 'Warren Hastings' without finding a single instance of the use of a possessive before a participle or participial noun; but I may turn to these same essays for proof of my assertion that the possessive frequently denotes the agent of an action; and such instances I rank under the specification of 'origin', in my rule. Turn to the essay on Milton. "His researches";

here is implied an act of *research*, and the agent is the preceding noun, the antecedent of *his*: “his failure”; here is the act of *failing*, and the actor or *failer* is the person denoted by the pronoun *his*: “his inferences”; some one *infers*; the agent is the person denoted by *his*. “Our intention”; here the act of *intending* is implied in the word *intention*; and the agent is to be sought in the antecedent of *our*. “His attempt”; here *he attempts* some thing: and though we call *his* a possessive and *attempt* a noun, the relations (logical and real, not formal and grammatical) of the things signified are still those of actor and act. Dropping the volume and making up instances, we see that the possessives in all the following examples really signify actors or subjects of actions as really as when the possessive is used before a participle: “John’s arrival; my hope; your trust; their belief; Philip’s deed; David’s act,” etc. It is just as philosophical to say “my trusting my friends has saved me,” as to say “my trust in my friends has saved me”: there is just as much *possession* in the one case as in the other.

In my next article I will give the history of what is called by English grammarians the participle.

SILAS WESTMAN.

SCHOLASTIC DISCIPLINE.

ONE of the narrowest theories in possession of the human mind, as it seems to us, is the prevailing one on the subject of scholastic discipline. If any study is peculiarly dry, hard, and rigid, we are very sure to hear a great deal of its value as a discipline. If we complain that Arithmetic, a most valuable study in its sphere, receives undue attention in our schools—that but few scholars ever make use, in practical life, of alligation, mensuration, and geometrical progression, and that those who do must study them professionally, and that, therefore, for most scholars, a moderate study of them is enough, we are answered, ‘Arithmetic disciplines the mind’. But if we should assert that Scott’s novels discipline the mind also, we should raise ‘inextinguishable laughter’. Yet we should but speak the truth. Arithmetic does discipline a certain portion of the mind, but it does not discipline all of it, nor the most important part of it. Imagination, the ‘regal faculty’, as it has been called, and by no less authority than the greater Napoleon, is not helped by Arithmetic at all; but is powerfully disciplined by Scott’s novels, or Spenser’s ‘Faerie Queene’.

Arithmetic does not discipline the sense by rhythmical harmony, while the reading of the poems of Crashaw and Coleridge would. This process of reasoning is applicable to every faculty of man's spiritual nature—mental, moral, or passionai. Men have been very much impressed by the great such success and decorous power of scientific men who have devoted themselves to the pure or mixed mathematics, or to metaphysics, or law. Hence, they have reasoned that these are the disciplinary studies for every one. The inference might as well be drawn that every body should study painting, because of the great success and decorous lives of Reynolds or of West. The original cause of Lord Stowell's great success in life was not because he had been disciplined by legal study, but because he had, by nature, an aptitude and a love for law. For a similar reason, Stephenson succeeded as an engineer, and Butler of Durham as a metaphysician. We believe in training, if possible, every faculty of every man. But we do n't believe we do that thing by an immoderate use of Daboll, Kant, and Coke-upon-Littleton.

One very important rule for mental discipline we take to be this: When the mind feels a delight in any particular course of action, take advantage of this tide of awakened or awakening taste, and put it in training. We were one day at the examination of a country school, and there was courteously placed in our hands a reading-book, that we might look after. The book evidently belonged to a girl in the school; and she had written on the margin of the pages to which we opened some rhythmical jingles of which the following are specimens:

"Oh! dear me, and my dear, too,
What shall me and my dear do?"

And

"I love you much now, but I'll love you much better
If, when you are married, you 'll send me a letter."

When this young lady wrote these lines, she was undoubtedly interested in poetical cadence, as almost all persons are during some part of their early years. At that time she ought to have had—what hardly any common school affords—instruction in the exquisite cadences of which thousands of instances might have been found in her book that was in our hands. But she was being disciplined so preponderatingly in 'Bank Discount' and the 'Assessment of Taxes', that, when in after life she should chance to open Scott's 'Marmion', she might remain perfectly dead to the exquisite flow of the following lines:

"Day set on Norman's castled steep,
And Tweed's fair river broad and deep,
And Cheviot's mountains lone:

The battled towers, the donjon keep,
 The loop-hole grates where captives weep,
 The flanking walls that round them sweep,
 In yellow lustre shone."

'Bank Discount' and the 'Assessment of Taxes' are rules of Arithmetic to which a woman rarely refers in life. But in sickness, depression, society, the taste for harmonious numbers, that so early displays itself, is likely to give great pleasure and some social influence.

The mind in youth is apt to be imaginative rather than calculating. Then is the time to strengthen, direct and chasten that most wonderful gift of God — the imaginative faculty. But, under the predominating influences of our land, the action of the imagination is classed, as worthless, with dancing and whist-playing, so that the graduate of the American common school too rarely looks upon the venerably-grand face of Abraham as it is lifted toward the gorgeous sky of Syria, while the night-wind rustles his robes and he counts the stars at God's command; he rarely meditates by the side of Isaac, 'in the field at eventide'; he never hears the step of David upon the stair as he goes 'up to the chamber over the gate to weep there', and is not reached by that moan of grief that some hear even now, "O Absalom! my son, my son! would God that I had died for thee, O Absalom! my son, my son!" Most parents think that if they check the imagination and set the calculating faculties of their children to work, they achieve an excellent discipline. We would request such people to read Daniel Webster's reply to Hayne, and then to ask what in that subdued his hearers, subdued the people of this country, what still subdues the readers most completely to that master's power. It is his imagination, disciplined over the *Æneid* and the *Iliad*, and illuminating, like the sun at his rising, the great senator's waving field of knowledge and stern, still, immovable mountain-peaks of argument. We believe in disciplining and chastening their imaginations by the right school reading-books, so that our children shall not revenge themselves upon our neglect by devouring yellow-covered literature and the novels of Paul de Kock.

In psychological discrimination our scholars need discipline. For of too many of their predecessors the question in the 'Winter's Tale', "Hast any philosophy in thee, shepherd?" might be asked with the certainty of a negative answer. Julius Cæsar was a man of mighty grasp of mind, and of a most commanding character. Too many people are apt to waken very slowly to the belief, if they ever attain to it, that such a man could have any little or weak points. Yet the classical scholar who has read Suetonius knows that he was exceedingly mortifi-

fied by the trifling evil of being bald. Oliver Cromwell, the great Chatham, Ignatius Loyola, Lord Clive, were men of astonishing practical wisdom. Yet the philosophy of many of our people would be *hors du combat* at once on hearing that every one of them was exceedingly liable to mental derangement. A thorough study, through their school-reading, of one or more of these great ones of earth would tend to broaden them exceedingly in their understanding of the complications and perplexities of human nature.

The propositions that we have made in this article are very practicable. In some institutions they have been found so; in our invaluable district schools they may be made so.

New-York Tribune, June, 1857.

COMMENTS ON THE SCHOOL LAW.

[For the Amendatory Act see page 153, hereafter.]

SECTION FIFTY.—ON TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.—Since the different grades of Teachers' Certificates must be based, not upon an examination in *different branches* of study (a certain number being necessary for each), but upon different degrees of excellence in *the same branches*, it becomes a task of no little difficulty to indicate with any degree of minuteness or accuracy the extent and character of the examination that should be required for each of the several grades. It must be left mainly to the wisdom and judgment of the commissioners. But it is very desirable to have the greatest practical uniformity in the standard of award for each grade; and to this end the following *general outline* of principles is respectfully suggested for the guidance of School Commissioners and Examiners:

First Grade.—The candidate for this grade should be able to sustain a thorough and critical examination upon all the subjects named in the act. He should be examined with reference, not only to mere technical knowledge, but to the *principles* of the branches required—the *philosophy of the rules*—the theory and practice of teaching, and the principles of school government. Especial inquiry should also be made as to the candidate's *peculiar aptitude in communicating knowledge*, and his ability to make it clear to the pupil by lucid explanations, and prompt and pertinent illustrations. In determining the claims of the candidate for this grade, it would also be proper to regard certain points upon which, from the nature of the case, there

can be no formal examination, but the relevance and significance of which can not be questioned. Such as precision and clearness of utterance, propriety and purity of diction, refinement of manner, genuine dignity of character and bearing, earnestness, conscientiousness, and high-toned morality. It is thought that in examinations of this character far too much stress is ordinarily laid upon the value of *mere scholarship*. The technical and scientific acquirements of the candidate must, indeed, be unimpeachable, but it is sincerely believed that the considerations just referred to have a more important bearing upon the question of the real fitness and highest success of the teacher than the utmost perfection of purely scholastic attainments.

Second Grade.—To secure this the candidate should exhibit a thorough knowledge of all the branches required by law, but the examination may be continued in a *more technical form*, with less reference to comprehensive, philosophical principles, and less rigor of scrutiny into the general qualifications enumerated above as necessary for the first grade.

Third Grade.—Certificates of this grade may be awarded to candidates the standard of whose examination falls decidedly below that requisite for the preceding grade, but whose knowledge of the branches specified in the act is, nevertheless, such as to warrant the Commissioner in *putting them upon trial* in a single district.

The duty of licensing men and women to be the teachers and guides of our children—to sustain to them relations scarcely less close and intimate and controlling than those of the parents themselves, and that for several months in the year, and for several of the most critical and formative years of their lives, is one of paramount importance and responsibility; one requiring great judgment and prudence, nice discrimination, honesty, and faithfulness. It should always be performed with a true regard to the magnitude of the interests involved, and a profound sense of *just moral accountability* for the consequences of haste, indiscretion, and thoughtlessness. The careless flippancy, the indecent haste, the indifference, the recklessness even, with which these most serious matters are too often disposed of are amazing. It is inexpressibly sad to think that an intelligent people *can* commit such interests to such unworthy hands as they often do. Commissioners can not be too firm in resisting the importunities of candidates for certificates of high grade when not clearly satisfied that such grade is deserved. The *examination*, and *not* the wishes, friendship, relationship, or pecuniary circumstances of the applicant, is the inexorable rule of the law, and by this the Commissioner must, if he does his duty, be governed with uncompromising fidelity. It is no real kind-

ness to a teacher to give him a certificate above the grade of his actual attainments and qualifications, while on the other hand it is in violation of law, and utterly subversive of the ends contemplated in the provision for different grades—namely, the elevation of the standard of qualifications and a just discrimination between the better and the poorer qualified. A candidate who is fit to receive *any* certificate *will not ask or take* one of a higher grade than he is found to be honestly entitled to. Such a man will insist upon beginning where his competency is unquestionable, and bravely striving to *earn* a higher grade. Among the conditions required by law is ‘good moral character’. Let this not be a mere form, to be practically ignored or lightly slurred over. It is a peremptory demand of the law, of the schools, and of society, and should be inquired into by the Commissioner when the applicant is unknown to him with no less rigor or scrutiny than that exercised in ascertaining his fitness in other respects. The question of character should always be the first considered, and, until it is satisfactorily disposed of, the Commissioner should refuse to go a step further. Terrible mistakes have been made in this matter. Moral monsters have been quartered upon unsuspecting districts, the contamination and havoc of whose example and influence can not be thought of without a shudder. It is difficult, if not impossible, to *know*, in some cases, that the candidate is worthy in this respect. But for this very reason, *because* it is so difficult, and because the consequences of serious error here are so fearful, the greater care is needed and should be taken.

It is also provided in the amendment to this section that a record shall be kept by the Commissioner, in which he shall note the name, age and sex of each candidate examined, together with the date and grade of each certificate issued, a summary of which shall be included in the statistical report to this office. The facts thus recorded and embodied will be very useful for reference in the several counties, and will furnish data for a general estimate of the advance or decline of the average standard of teachers’ qualifications in the whole State. I have prepared a well-bound book for this purpose, which can be had, if desired, by addressing Johnson & Bradford, Springfield, Illinois. The price is \$2, which may be paid for out of the school fund. I have added to the facts designated in the act as necessary to be recorded another, showing the State in which each recipient of a certificate was born, under the head of ‘nativity’, the blank for which will, I hope, be filled with the others by each Commissioner. The blanks in the Commissioner’s record of examinations above, referred to, are as follows:

Name.	Age.	Nativity.	Date of Certificate.	Grade.
John Bell.	27	Illinois.	March 14.	FIRST.

The sex should be indicated by writing the proper name *in full*. This book is to be a public record, subject to inspection at any time, and should be carefully preserved and filed with other permanent documents in the office of the School Commissioner. In addition to this record, in which the names of *successful* candidates *only* are to be entered, Commissioners are also requested to keep a *private* register of the *unsuccessful* candidates, of which the *number only, not the names*, will be known to the public. Thus the annual report to this office will exhibit the whole number of candidates examined, the number of males, the number of females, the number who have received certificates, the number rejected, giving the sexes separately in each case, and the whole number of certificates of each grade issued.

Authority is also conferred upon the State Superintendent to issue State Certificates to such teachers as may sustain the examination to be prescribed, and who may be found otherwise worthy to receive the same. In accordance with the discretion allowed by law, a Board of Examiners will be chosen from eminent teachers in this State to co-operate with the Superintendent in conducting the examinations for State certificates. The time, place, subjects, range, methods, conditions and rules of said examinations will be considered and determined as soon as practicable, and the results communicated in a special circular.

SECTION FIFTY-TWO.—The only change in this section, it will be observed, is the repeal of the *proviso* authorizing Commissioners, in certain cases, to examine teachers upon a *part only* of the branches required by law, and to issue certificates accordingly. No such certificates can be granted under the present law. All candidates must be examined in *all* the branches, as a condition of receiving a certificate—the grade of which will depend upon the relative merits of the examination sustained.

SECTION SEVENTY-ONE.—COMPENSATION TO SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS.—I am aware that the compensation for visiting schools and other educational services which is allowed School Commissioners by the amendment to this section is entirely too small for the *faithful labors of competent officers*, while it is too large, by just two dollars a day, for the pretended services of unfaithful and incompetent officers. It is not such a provision as I desired, but it is at least a partial recognition of the importance and value of *educational services* which

are distinctly contemplated in the act, and which every commissioner in the State *should* be able to render. While this allowance, small as it is, should encourage those who are capable of performing the kind of labor intended to still greater diligence, it should not prompt those to undertake it who are conscious of inability and unfitness for the work, and of being actuated solely or mainly by pecuniary motives. No commissioner can *truly earn* the per diem here allowed who visits schools for the sole purpose *of* earning it. But it is hoped that no occasion will arise in any part of the State to warrant the belief that the plain purpose of the law has been violated, or that the license which it grants has been abused. The simple truth is that some of our commissioners are most excellent officers in all other respects, but they are not able to 'give directions in the art and method of teaching', *and they know it*. They are not familiar with the philosophy of education, the principles of school government, and the details of the arrangement and management of schools, and they do not pretend to be. Others, while not more competent and faithful in other respects, *are* able to give such directions; *are* familiar with the principles of education, and the practical duties of the school-room. Now, the law, of course, does not and can not make any such distinction; but common sense teaches that the *former class* can not do the work and should not receive the pay authorized in this amendment; the *latter class* can do the work and should receive the pay. It will be noticed that the account must in all cases be 'certified and sworn to'. Power is expressly granted to county and supervisors' courts to add to the compensation of School Commissioners for educational services, and to encourage the organization and maintenance of Teachers' Institutes by appropriations from the county treasury at their discretion. I deem this a wise and most salutary provision, and earnestly hope that the authorities named will avail themselves of it without hesitation, and in a spirit of *intelligent liberality*, whenever the Commissioner, by his ability and devotion to his work, merits such a recognition of his services, and whenever Institutes *are so conducted, by honest, tried, and competent men*, as justly to entitle them, in view of the good accomplished, to the benefit of the appropriation. This discretionary power granted to county courts and boards of supervisors to aid in the support of Institutes is all that could be saved from the general wreck of the hopes, and plans, and efforts, of those who looked to the late Legislature for the means of a more thorough organization and a prudent expansion of the educational system of this great State through the agency of a series of County Teachers' Institutes, held under the supervision of the Department of Public Instruction. In view of this

fact, I again ask, most earnestly ask, that the authority conferred by the amendment shall be prudently, yet promptly and liberally, exercised in behalf of Teachers' Institutes when there are satisfactory guaranties that they will be properly and efficiently managed. Turned empty away from doors where it had a right to expect a welcome, let not the Institute, freighted with blessings for our schools and our children, plead in vain for help where, now, it can alone be found.

THE STAY LAW.—[Mr. Bateman's circular cites the principal sections of the Act to extend the time for the collection of taxes. The second paragraph of Mr. Bateman's remarks below gives the essential provisions of the law, and we do not give them here.—EDITOR.]

The effect of this law upon the free schools in nearly one-half the counties of the State, for 1861, is disastrous. Even in counties under township organization the interests of education are injuriously affected; but it is upon the schools in counties not under township organization that the blow falls with crushing force. My official relations to the parties most seriously affected by this act justify a pointed allusion to my own course in regard to it. I desire, then, to say to all teachers and others whose pecuniary interests and just rights are compromised by this act, and to all Boards of Directors and other corporate school authorities whose ability to meet their obligations and fulfill their agreements and contracts with teachers and other creditors, at the time specified in and in accordance with the terms of such agreements and contracts, is taken from them and swept away by this act—that, from the hour I learned that a bill for such an act had been introduced, I used every effort in my power to protect the rights and interests of the parties above named, and of my other educational constituents. I remonstrated and entreated with individuals and committees, in conversation and in writing. I pressed the fact that thousands of teachers would be involved in the consequences of the postponement; that most of those teachers were entirely dependent upon their salaries for their daily bread and the means of paying their honest debts; that, except in cities and the larger towns, very few had received any money since last October, while many had waited for a still longer period; that the contracts of teachers were generally *credit* contracts, payable in April and October; that provisions and other necessities for themselves and families from October to April were obtained, and could only be obtained, upon promises to pay at the latter date; that teachers' notes and all other kinds of pecuniary obligations matured then; that thousands of teachers in the State had families to support, which must suffer if the bill in its then existing shape became a law. I urged the truth that, while other classes of the community

might perhaps be temporarily relieved, *teachers*, as a body, would be overwhelmed with embarrassments, having, literally, no other resources; that thousands of Boards of Directors would be unable to redeem their pledges to teachers that their wages should be paid in April; that hundreds of mechanics and others, who had built and repaired school-houses and performed other services for the directors, would be compelled to wait from three to nine months longer for their hard earnings; that those who had sold building-lots and lumber for school-houses, and apparatus, libraries, maps, furniture, etc., could not realize a dollar on their contracts when they became due; that over a million of dollars of special taxes, levied by the districts in 1860 to meet liabilities maturing in April, 1861, for arrearages and current salaries of teachers, for school-house lots, school-houses, rents, wages of mechanics, apparatus, incidental expenses, etc., together with three-fourths of a million of dollars of State fund relied upon for the same purposes, would, at one blow, be rendered unavailable at the time they were needed and pledged, by the passage of the bill; that many schools would inevitably be compelled to disband, at least till fall; that not only embarrassment, but actual dishonor, would overtake not a few teachers, while inability to meet the demands of the law requiring a six-months school would be urged, and confusion and damage to the whole educational interest would follow in the train of the passage of the measure; that the relation to the bill of all engaged in teaching was *peculiar*, absolutely sweeping away for a time their whole living, their sole dependence for themselves, their families, and their creditors; that, while I had nothing to say touching the wisdom of the bill in its bearings upon the interests of other classes, or its claims to be regarded as a just and prudent measure of State policy, I claimed the right to ask the thoughtful attention of the Legislature to its effect upon the thousands whom I, in a sense, specially represented, and whose interests were so seriously involved. It was also urged that the *principle* of the bill be changed, making non-extension the rule, and extension the exception, so that if any counties *really needed* the relief they could have it, without involving those that did not need or ask for relief. But—the bill passed.

It provides that, in counties under township organization, tax-warrants shall be returnable on the 15th of April, and that final settlement shall be made with the Auditor by the 10th of July. In other counties State, county, and school-taxes, both general and special, are not due and payable till August 1, and final settlement is not required till November 10. All school-taxes, both the two-mill State tax and special district taxes, are included in the operation of the law. The

earliest period at which these taxes *can with confidence be relied upon* is the *first of June* in all counties under township organization, and the *first of September* in all other counties; those dates, respectively, being fixed as the limits when taxes then unpaid shall be deemed delinquent, and when legal proceedings may be instituted and judgments obtained for the sale of delinquent lands. Some relief is found in the 3d section of the act, which requires collectors to pay over, upon oath, all taxes collected up to the time of filing their schedules, which must be within twenty days from the approval of the act. It is feared that the amount of *school-taxes* that will be reported in the schedules as collected and payable will be inconsiderable — less, probably, than one-tenth of the sums severally due. But, more or less, whatever *is* collected must be promptly paid over by the collectors, on pain of the forfeiture of their commissions and liability of suit upon their official bonds. The act was approved February 14, and the schedules and affidavits of collectors are required to be filed within twenty days thereafter. This provision of the law, therefore, must be complied with on or before the sixth day of March, 1861. The school-taxes collected up to the time the schedules are filed must be paid to the officers entitled to receive them: that is, *district taxes* shall be paid to *Township Treasurers* on presentation of the certificates of the County Clerks and demand of said Treasurers, as provided in the 45th section of the general school law. And the amount of such district taxes received from the collectors should be indorsed by the treasurers on the certificates of the County Clerks, as partial payments, and held subject to the order of the several Boards of Directors, as required in the 77th section of the general act. The amount of the two-mill or *State* school-tax, collected as above, shall be paid to *School Commissioners*, and be by them indorsed, as partial payments, on their Auditor's warrants, and distributed without delay to the several townships and fractional townships, as required in the 16th section of the school-law. When the balance due on the warrants is received, another apportionment will, of course, be necessary. The only available funds, then, to meet the April liabilities of Directors, will be such as will accrue:

1. From the interest of the township fund received.
2. From the amount received from Collectors on account of special district taxes.
3. From the amount received of School Commissioners on account of State fund.
4. From the interest of the county school-fund, in counties having such fund.

5. From fines and forfeitures collected under the 82d section of the act.

The aggregate of these various funds will differ widely in the several counties, townships, and districts; but in very few will it be adequate to liquidate the April indebtedness of the districts. In all cases where Boards of Directors find themselves unable to fulfill their contracts with teachers in April next, *solely on account of the operation of this law* in postponing the collection of the taxes upon which they relied for the means to fulfill those contracts, said Boards of Directors are hereby authorized to borrow money in their corporate capacity at a rate of interest not exceeding ten per cent., and to pay said teachers according to the terms of said contracts. And to refund the money so borrowed, and interest, said Directors may, *if necessary*, cause a tax to be levied in their respective districts, for the levy of which tax no vote shall be necessary. If it should be found impracticable, or be deemed inexpedient, to borrow money to pay the teachers as per contract, as aforesaid, then Directors should give their notes, as Directors, at ten per cent., for the balances due said teachers; or, they should authorize ten per cent. to be paid on the amounts remaining due and unpaid on the schedules, by official indorsement on the schedules to that effect. Schedules now draw six per cent., by law, from the time they are due and payable in April and October. But if the teachers are not paid, they will be compelled to borrow money to pay their debts and save their credit, and no loan can be effected at less than ten per cent. When Directors borrow money, as above mentioned, it will not, of course, *as a general rule*, be necessary to refund by special district taxation—the loan, in most cases, can be paid when final settlement is had with the Collectors and others, as provided in the first and second sections of the act under consideration. It is most devoutly to be hoped that the financial affairs of the school system in this great State may never again be thrown into such confusion, at least not until better reasons can be given for it than any which have been offered in the present case.

THE THREE-MILE ACT.—[See page 160, hereafter.] It is not my official province to arraign an act of the Legislature, whatever may be its bearing upon the educational interests of the State, but ‘to explain, interpret, and determine its true intent and meaning’. I had no knowledge of the existence of the bill until it had passed. If I had been permitted to see the act *before* it became a law, it would *then* have been proper to suggest that the words ‘two or more’, upon which the whole force of the reasoning in the preamble depends, are not in the 33d section of the act of 1857, as alleged, nor in any other section

of this is not only not true, hence the presumed unlawfulness of
 a certain interpretation of this section is the only one
 which a different construction is believed to be legitimately deducible
 from the words actually used, and it is thus maintained by some of the
 most eminent in the State that it does not follow because there is
 but one district in a township that there must needs be but one school-
 house, and that in the extreme part thereof that of the county.
 A large number of townships are known to be organized in the manner
 contemplated by this act, with the heavy population of the inhabitants,
 having a high school as well as the center and intermediate and pri-
 mary schools as provided for by the act throughout the township, forming
 some of the most efficient, prosperous and harmonious districts in the
 State, the organization of which will be utterly destroyed by this act
 if such provisions as those enumerated in the preceding really est-
 able a power and might thereby lost sight of the other portion which
 the Supreme Court has declared the trustees to possess that district
 independent, that if the trustees refuse to exercise their powers and
 manage the act contemplated in it would be deemed by special acts to
 amend a few cases that by a general act in passing and times as many
 well-established and flourishing schools that no good reason can be
 seen why the small and poorer and the unprosperous, least-flourishing
 district should bear the burden of taxation while the wealthy and
 prosperous districts whose lands are situated in some of the schools
 is permitted to escape taxation — which if not the purpose will be the
 inevitable effect of the act. But as before mentioned, the bill
 having passed and been made a law we must deal with it as such, it is
 open for interpretation, and the discussion upon its merits.

In every organized township, there must be at least one school
 district, otherwise the laws enacted will be illegal and void, and in
 lands so well adapted to personal property can be legally taxed in order
 to support a school-house, or to support a free school, unless such family
 or personally be willing that it be so, and the proposed act of the house
 or be built or repaired, and in the place where the school is to be sup-
 ported is actually kept. It will be seen that the decision given in the
 opinion of December 18th, pp. 11 and 12, is rendered void by the
 provisions enumerated in the first section of the act. All school officers
 in the townships concerned will take due notice and govern themselves
 accordingly.

NEWTON BATEMAN, State Public Administrator.

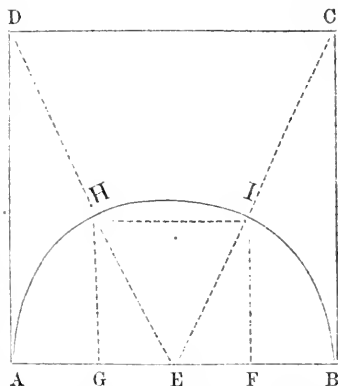
St. Louis, Mo., March, 1861.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—*Prob. I in Dec. No., page 475.*

Question.—Required, to inscribe the greatest square in a semicircle whose diameter is d , and to determine its area.

Solution.—Let AB be the diameter of the given semicircle, and E its centre. Upon AB construct the square ABCD. Draw ED and EC, cutting the given curve in the points H and I. Join HI, which becomes by construction a side of the required square. Complete the square EFGH, and we have a maximum square inscribed in a given semicircle. Now, since $AD=BC=2AE=2EB$, we have by similar triangles $GE=\frac{1}{2}GH=EF=\frac{1}{2}IF$. Put $EG=EF=x$; then $GH=IF=2x$. Now, the equation of the circle when the origin of the coördinates is at the centre is $x^2+y^2=R^2=x^2+4x^2=\frac{d^2}{4}$. $\therefore x=\frac{d}{2\sqrt{5}}$. $\therefore 2x=\frac{d}{\sqrt{5}}$ —the side of the required square, and $\frac{d^2}{5}$ —its area.



TYRO.

Prob. II in Dec. No.

Question.—A has two pendulums: one vibrates in 40 seconds, the other in 20 seconds: What is the ratio of their lengths?

Solution.—"The lengths of different pendulums vibrating in unequal times are to each other as the squares of the times of their vibration." (*Wells's Philos.*, p. 61.) Therefore, their lengths are as 40^2 to 20^2 , or as 4 to 1.

C. H. L.

Prob. III in Dec. No.

Question.—Find the values of x in each of the following equations, and reconcile the apparent inconsistency. (1) $\dots x + \frac{3(\sqrt{x-3})}{\sqrt{x-3}} = 2x + 3$; (2) $\dots x + \frac{3(\sqrt{x-3})}{\sqrt{x-3}} = 3x + 3$; (3) $\dots x + \frac{3(\sqrt{x-3})}{\sqrt{x-3}} = 4x + 3$.

Solution.—The first members of these equations are alike, while the second members are unlike; yet, by clearing of fractions and solving, we find the value of x in each to be 9. If we divide the numerator of the fraction by its denominator, we obtain from the different equations these results: (1) $\dots 1=2$; (2) $\dots 1=3$; (3) $\dots 1=4$. This

apparent discrepancy depends upon the variable value of the fraction $\frac{3(1-x-3)}{1-x-3}$, which we have assumed to be 3 in each case. Now since $1/x - 3 = 0$, the fraction, in effect, is $\frac{3 \times 0}{0}$, or $\frac{0}{0}$, having no fixed value.

Since 0 may be obtained by multiplying 0 by any finite number whatever, it follows that $\frac{0}{0}$ is a variable expression, assuming different values at different times: in the first of these equations its value is 12; in the second, 21; and in the third, 30.

C. H. L.

Another Solution of the same, by PUPILLUS.—Clear each equation of fractions, cancel common terms and common factors after transposing, and we have the same result for each, viz., $1 \cdot x = 3 : \therefore x = 9$. The apparent inconsistency results from the fraction, which, instead of being unity multiplied by 3, as one would at first suppose, is indeterminate; since $1 \cdot x - 3 = 0$.

Will some one send solution of Prob. III in Nov. No. in time for the May issue?

'SALEM' has sent correct solution of Prob. II in Sept. *Teacher*: he will notice that his solution was anticipated by 'ADAM' in Dec. No.

PROBLEMS.—I. What three numbers between 42 and 9240 have the former for their greatest common divisor and the latter for their least common multiple?

H. B. S.

II. A, B and C commence trade with \$3053.25, and gain \$610.65. A's stock plus B's is to B's as 5 to 7; and C's stock minus B's is to C's plus B's as 1 to 7: What is each one's part of the gain? H. B. S.

III. What time is it when $\frac{2}{3}$ of the time past noon is equal to $\frac{3}{5}$ of the time to midnight? Give the answer in hours, minutes, and seconds.

H. B. S.

We have one other question on hand, from G. B. J., that we intended to publish this month; but on examination we find it in its present construction not quite suitable for publication.

The above series of problems are purely arithmetical, and solutions of that character are desired

MATH. ED.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

OUR TABLE THIS MONTH is diminished in size and in the variety of its dishes, in order to give, as desired by Mr. Bateman, a large portion of his circular of March, which has been issued so lately that it can not reach most of our readers so soon as do these pages. Another object on account of which we pinch ourselves in space is to give the Acts of the Legislature which are to be found just before the Book Notices. As our extracts from Mr. Bateman's circular give his comments upon them, we postpone our own till a future occasion; perhaps may think that enough is said in our pages; but we hope that school-officers, school-teachers, and friends of education, will not cease to speak of the disgraceful conduct of the late legislative body until the people are enlightened as to their performances.

SCHOOL REGISTER.—We had a call lately from Mr. O. Adams, teacher of the St. Charles Union School, who showed us his new School Register. It surpasses any thing hitherto devised for neatness and adaptation to the purposes of a Register. It may be used to show the attendance, tardiness, and deportment of pupils. Mr. Adams's directions show how it may be used for all these purposes; and in one school where it has been introduced it has had the effect to reduce tardiness 75 per cent. below the previous average, by its influence upon the minds of the pupils who are unwilling to have the record show how late they are. It has already been introduced into the schools of many of the principal towns in the north and centre of our State, and has the highest commendations of those who have tried it. We most heartily recommend it to all school-officers and teachers. Since school-officers are by law authorized to purchase records for schools, they will find it desirable to get these as permanent records of the attendance of the school.

BOOKS REJECTED IN THE SOUTH.—The *Educational Repository* and *Family Monthly* and the *Southern Teacher* are now the only exchanges that we receive from any Southern State. They are not conducted on the plan pursued by *all* our other exchanges, of letting the slavery controversy alone, but are strongly pro-slavery. The *Southern Teacher* last fall contained an article against the Declaration of Independence. The *Repository* is furnished with able articles, and we have found in its pages the most decided and critically best reviews of school-books that we have seen. The February number has an article in which advice is given to reject as corrupting and dangerous the following books: Willson's American History; Mrs. Willard's U.S. Histories; Goodrich's Pictorial History of the U.S.; Peabody's U.S. History; Wayland's Moral Science; and Boyd's Eclectic Moral Philosophy. Mrs. Willard's offense is in saying that political anti-slavery organization 'had its origin in feelings honorable to human nature'.

The Georgia Convention has offered a prize of \$500 each for a Spelling-Book, an Arithmetic, an English Grammar, a Geography, and two Reading-Books. Why

not add, a History, a Rhetoric, a Moral Science, and a Dictionary? These can be easily made the vehicles of opinions: the Spelling-book and Arithmetic can not.

THE SCHOOLMASTER UNDER DIRECTION.—A friend who exercises the function of School Commissioner in this State sends us the following rules of school sent by the Directors of a certain district to the school-teacher, from whom our friend obtained it. He says: "Perhaps it is needless to add that the teacher refused to go on with the school." We wish we could give a *fac-simile* of the paper as we have it:

rules of school no swaring no raslen no puling of hats no skating no runing to the eis no holring at peple as tha pas by no token in secol no reses tak up secol at 8 let out at 4 no nick nams in secol or out of secol no sno boling eny uther rules that you plesse.

A LITERARY CORRESPONDENT.—On showing the above to a gentleman in our city, he produced the following, which he cut from an Ohio newspaper some time ago:

The following is in every particular (except names) a literal copy of a letter received by one of our booksellers from a correspondent in Tazewell county, Illinois. The bookseller desires to state that he does not deal in maps 'showing the anchen towns and Sitteys and destricts of Cuntreys named in the Bibel and nutestiment'.

Tremont July 6th 1857

Mr ———— der Sir

I wish to perches a Map for the us of a Sunday School shoing the anchen towns and Sitteys and destricts of Cuntreys named in the Bibel and nutestiment, ples give information if you have sutch and can obtain sutch and wat they will cost.

address J ———— Tremont
— — — — —

Teas well Co Ill

ASK THE CHILDREN.—In a speech in the Illinois Legislature Mr. Kuykendall said, "I have eleven daughters, and each daughter has two brothers." Now how many children has he?

A SINGULAR THEORY REGARDING DIPHTHERIA.—A writer in the Farmington (Me.) *Patriot* suggests that 'the *immediate predisposing cause* of diphtheria is the exhaustion of potash in the blood — leaving the vital tide too nearly like mere colored acidulated water'. He suggests also that the too free use of acid fruit, the apple, for instance, in connection with the decrease of potash or saleratus in cookery, has tended to acidulate the blood and prepare the victim for disease.

We find the foregoing in several of our exchange papers. Let no one be deceived by such blind gnessing. The author of that hypothesis would have been nearer right if he had assigned the use of alkalis in cooking as a cause of disease. *Since the free use of saleratus and soda in the kitchen, neuralgia and dyspepsia have increased, and will increase until wiser customs are followed.* Every sensible physician, allopathic, homoeopathic, or hydropathic, will say, 'avoid the alkalis, and use fruits as freely as possible'. School-teachers ought to know enough of physiology to teach children so.

THE SOURCE OF THE NILE.—Most geographers have concluded that Lake Nyanza is the source of the Nile, and have expected that Capt. Speke's expedition will confirm this belief. But recently Giovanni Miani has succeeded in reaching a place called Galufi, 180 miles above Gondokoro, the previous limit of ascent of the river; and there the natives are totally ignorant of any such lake as Nyanza, and assert that the source of the river is at a point lying in the direction of Mt.

Kenia. Galufi is only 2° from the equator, and only 270 geographical miles from Capt. Speke's most northern point.

The natives of the Galufi region are very different from those lower on the river, speak a Coptic dialect, and resemble in features the fine faces of the Egyptian tombs. They are also very warlike, and Miani was obliged at every village to prepare for a contest. The Viceroy of Egypt has undertaken to aid Miani in further discoveries, giving him a force of 200 soldiers and means to continue his explorations.

AFRICAN EXPLORATIONS.—Four large and well-supported expeditions will be this year in the equatorial region about Lake Nyanza and the head of the Nile; the Italian of Miani, spoken of above; the English of Capt. Speke; the French of Lejean; and the German of Heuglin. The latter is to start from the Upper Nile and endeavor to clear up the mystery of the death of Dr. Vogel, and to obtain his books and papers; it will then survey the region between the Nile and Lake Tsad. Heuglin has lived and traveled many years in Nubia, Abyssinia, and Egypt.

Henry Duveyrier is actively engaged in surveying the Sahara, and having made friendships with several powerful Tuareg chiefs expects to reach regions hitherto inaccessible. He has been very active there for two years past, and has made many valuable discoveries: yet he was only 19 years old on the 28th of February.

NECROLOGY.—CHRISTIAN KARL JUSIAS BUNSEN, generally known as Chevalier BUNSEN, was born at Corbach, in Waldeck, August 25, 1791, and died in December, 1860, at Bonn. He was famous as a scholar, diplomatist, politician, and theologian, being familiar with many languages, including the ancient northern tongues. In 1815 he became acquainted with Niebuhr, and in 1818, while Niebuhr was Prussian Minister at Rome, Bunsen became his private secretary, and afterward secretary of legation. From this time he exercised much influence both in the scientific and literary circles of Europe, and in political affairs. From 1824 till 1837 he was Prussian Minister at Rome, and secured some concessions favoring protestants from the Pope, and some church reforms at home. He was afterward Minister to England. In 1853 his opposition to some measures and opinions of the King of Prussia caused him to retire to private life; and soon he began to issue important works of biblical criticism. He was the inventor of an electrical battery which bears his name. . . . Prof. CHARLES B. HADDOCK died at West-Lebanon, N.H., January 10th, aged 65 years. He was an eminent scholar, formerly a teacher at Dartmouth, and under Pres. Pierce's administration minister to Portugal. He was a nephew to Daniel Webster. He went to bed early complaining of a slight pain; and when his wife went to her chamber she found her husband had ceased to breathe. He was lately engaged in a work on Rhetoric; we do not remember whether it has been issued. . . . Rev. Dr. SHURTLEFF, of Dartmouth, died recently at Hanover, N.H., aged 87 years. . . . Prof. CHARLES W. HACKLEY was born at Herkimer, March 9, 1808, and died at New York, January 10th, 1860. He was educated at West Point and became Ass't Prof. of Mathematics there; studied law, then theology, and became an Episcopal clergyman; from 1832 till 1838 he was Prof. of Mathematics in N.Y. University; in 1839 became President of Jefferson College, Miss.; in 1843 he became Prof. of Astronomy in Columbia College, N.Y., in which post he died aged nearly 52. He was author of several mathematical works, the most noted of which is his Algebra . . . Dr. JOHN

WAKEFIELD FRANCIS, an eminent physician and literary man of New York, died in that city February 8th. He was born in the same city in 1789. His writings are principally medical: but he contributed to magazines, and to Rees's and the New American Cyclopedias. . . . JAMES MONROE, a member of the old firm of James Monroe & Co., Boston, died January 12, 1861. . . . Prof. JOSIAH WILLARD GIBBS, LL.D., was born at Salem, April 30, 1790, and died at New Haven, March 25, 1861. He was from 1824 Prof. of Sacred Literature in the Theological Department of Yale College, and was well known as a scholar for his extensive and accurate learning in philology. He was the author of a *Hebrew Lexicon*, and other biblical works; of *Philological Studies*, and of a Latin text-book. He also wrote some portions of Prof. Fowler's English Grammar.

A NOBLE EXAMPLE.—While the presidential party were dining at Erie, certain gentlemen offered Mr. Lincoln wine, and rather forced it on him. Mr. Lincoln replied: "I have lived fifty years without the use of any liquor, and I do not think it worth while to change my habits now." *

IN DETROIT, MICHIGAN, children are reported have been almost frozen to death on the 'cold Friday', and quite a storm has been raised against the shells of houses in use for some of the schools besides the storms of wind and snow against which they prove so poor a protection, and reform is promised. *

BARNARD'S JOURNAL for March, 1861, begins the tenth volume of the work. The following is the list of its articles: Theodore Lyman; State Normal School of Connecticut; Drawing in all Elementary Schools; Pestalozzi, Fellenberg, Vehrli, and the Industrial Training of the Poor; Instruction in Common Things; Elementary Instruction in Economical Science; Intellectual Instruction; Subjects and Means of Education; Religious Instruction; Discipline; Example; Public Instruction in the Grand-Duchy of Baden; Schools of Art and Science; German Views of Female Education; Cornelius Conway Felton; Memorial of the Worcester County Teachers' Association to the State Teachers' Association, 1860. In all there are sixteen articles, some of which are of much interest, and all valuable. \$4.00 a year. Persons unacquainted with the work can procure (gratis) a general index of the first five volumes, by addressing the proprietor, Henry Barnard, Hartford, Connecticut.

LEIGH HUNT'S LIBRARY was purchased by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields, entire, and will be brought to America. It contains many presentation copies, with the autographs of authors.

PARADAY'S LECTURES on 'the Chemical History of a Candle', six lectures before the Royal Institution of Great Britain, *adapted to a juvenile audience*, are republished in that mine of popular scientific information, the *Scientific American*, profusely illustrated.

PUBLISHER'S NOTICE.—The April number of the *Teacher* has been unavoidably delayed much beyond the regular day of publication: we hope to be on time hereafter.

Back numbers of the current volume can no longer be supplied.

A few complete sets of Volume IV can be had of the publisher for \$1.00 each: no full sets of any other volume on hand.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E .

OUR BLUNDER BUDGET.—*Dear Sir :* We do not like Robinson's Arithmetics in our school. I send you specimens of the matter in different copies not marked as different editions, and of errors. On page 252 of the Practical Arithmetic occurs the question, "A speculator, having money in the bank, drew 60 per cent. of it, and expended 40 per cent. of 50 per cent. of this for 728 bushels of wheat at \$1.12½ per bushel; how much was left in the bank? *Ans.* \$3,640." Another copy has, 'expended 30 per cent. of 50 per cent.', etc., *with the same answer.*

On page 290, Ex. 5, is, What will 3 casks of rice cost, each weighing 135 pounds, at 4d. per pound South Carolina currency? *Ans.* \$27. Other copies, *with same answer*, have, 'weighing 126 pounds', etc.

On page 331, Ex. 97, is, "I have three notes payable as follows: one for \$200, due January 1, 1859, another for \$350, due September 1, and another for \$500, due April 20, 1860; what is the average? *Ans.* October 8." Another book has the question exactly the same, except the words 'of maturity' at the end, and has answer 'Oct. 24, 1859'.

On page 328 occurs an example (54) printed exactly alike in different books, one copy having as answer 'B \$1500; C \$1000'; another copy, 'B \$1000; C \$1500.'

In some copies, Ex. 34, p. 326, is this: "A certain principal at compound interest for five years"; in others, "A farmer sold 17 bushels of barley" Also in some, Ex. 36, p. 328, is, "Comparing two numbers, 483 was found to be their least common multiple, and 23 their greatest common divisor; what were the numbers compared? *Ans.* 69 and 161." Others ask, "what is the product of the numbers compared? *Ans.* 11,109." These are only specimens. s.

Here is a question from Warren's Physical Geography, page 47: "What would be the disadvantage in keeping close to the shores of South America all the way to San Francisco?" We imagine the scholar who can tell how to get to San Francisco at all, 'keeping close to the shores of South America all the way', can go to the head.

We will be glad to have teachers make a note of such differences and errors as they find in books pretending to be the same, or fit for use in our schools. *

N O T E S A N D Q U E R I E S .

ANSWERS.—*Queries 27 and 28 (page 40)* are—"Why do the leaves of the forest in autumn turn red, yellow, brown, etc.?" and "How is the atmosphere constantly replenished with oxygen?" It will be easiest to consider these questions together.

The principal agencies that withdraw oxygen from the air are fire, respiration

of animals, and eremacausis, which is the slow oxydation of organic matters in the air.* All these agencies combine oxygen with carbon, making carbonic-acid gas. Now plants need for the principal element of their growth carbon, and that they obtain from the air by absorbing its carbonic acid directly through their leaves, and by drawing from the soil water which has been impregnated with it in falling through the air and sinking into the earth. But the compound of carbon and oxygen can be decomposed only by the chemical rays of the sun and in the green parts of plants. Under the influence of solar light the leaves of plants separate carbonic acid into its elements, exhaling the oxygen into the atmosphere and retaining the carbon for the growth of the plant. Chemists have no means of effecting this decomposition at vital temperatures. GRAHAM states that green leaves absorb the chemie rays of the sun so completely as to give no image in the daguerreotype. LIENG regards the occasional exhalation of carbonic acid by plants as a physical exosmosis, not a vital excretion; and he supposes it to arise from the presence of that gas in the fluids of the plant at times when there is no light to produce the decomposition.

Essential to the production of the decomposition is the chlorophyl or green coloring-matter of the leaves; it consists of peculiar globules, of which a larger portion is in the upper or darker side of a leaf. I do not know that the particular influence which it has in the change has ever been shown. It may be that chlorophyl is one of the effects of the change rather than one of its causes; but I saw in a scientific work some ten years ago a statement which seems to indicate a peculiar vital function in chlorophyl; it was that tadpoles kept in the dark do not change to frogs, unless fed with green leaves: and this seems to indicate that chlorophyl has a power of preserving and transmitting the chemie forces of the sun. Chlorophyl can be obtained separate from the leaf, and forms when dry a bluish-green mass. If this is exposed to the light of the sun it turns yellow, just as leaves turn yellow in the fall. It is probable, then, that the changes of color in leaves arise from changes in the condition and color of the chlorophyl which remains in the leaf after its function in the growth of the plant has ceased in consequence of the change of season. The change of color does not necessarily imply change of chemical composition. The cause of the variety of colors I could only guess at, and the reader can do as much without my aid. Gray's *Lessons in Botany* (Less. 26) gives an interesting account of the function of the leaves of plants.

T. T.

To Query 36 (page 115).—"Why is the presiding officer in the House of Representatives in the United States called the *Speaker*?" All communications and addresses from the House of Commons of Great Britain to the King or Queen are made through the presiding officer of that body: hence he is styled the *Speaker*, as the person who speaks for the Commons to the Sovereign. We have received the term from the English.

C. H. L.

Whenever a conclusion is reached by the House of Representatives as shown by a vote of the body, it is the duty of the presiding officer to declare it: he is thus the spokesman of the assembly, declaring its acts and opinions. Is not this one reason for calling him the *Speaker*?

STEPHEN.

NEW QUERIES.—*Query 38.*—Why do woollens shrink when washed?

Query 39.—Why are we less able to resist cold when lying down than when standing or sitting?

Query 40.—"Poems by William Cowper, of the Inner Temple, Esq." This is the published title of Cowper's Works, and I have seen the same phraseology elsewhere, when the inns of court were referred to. Why is not *Esq.* placed directly after the name?

Query 41.—The *Chicago Tribune*, in its letter lists, commences all titles with small letters, thus 'miss', 'mrs.', 'dr.', 'rev.', 'm.d.', 'capt.', and 'co.' What authority is there for this, except the authority exercised by 'short of caps'?

C. H. L.

Query 42.—What are the distinctive characteristics of a *Grammar School*?
PUPILS.

Supplementary to Queries 25 and 37, I offer the following sentences. These are not exceptional uses of the verb—this construction is found in the writings of every period from that of Chaucer to the present. It is to the use of the verbs which I have italicized that I would call attention.

"Thou art so full of misery.
Were it not better not to be."—TENNYSON.

"It *were* absurd to suppose," etc.—COLERIDGE.

"In a word, a man *were* better relate himself to a statue or picture than to suffer his thoughts to pass in smother."—BACON.

"Those many *had* not dared to do that evil,
If the first man that did the edict infringe
Had answered for his deed."—SHAKESPEARE.

"Lord, if thou hadst been here, my brother *had* not died."—JOHN XI, 21.

C. H. L.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

COOK CO. INSTITUTE is to be held in the High-School building in Chicago, beginning Monday, April 15th. A cordial invitation to be present is extended to all teachers and all others interested.

CHICAGO.—The late principal of the Moseley School has been removed for want of skill in maintaining discipline: the pupils on this issue made up a quarrel with the Board of Education. That body has, however, quietly filled the place by appointing thereto our friend S. A. Briggs, recently at Beardstown.

FOR INSTITUTES.—Messrs. O. C. Blackmer, of Rockford, and O. Adams, of St. Charles, will be ready to attend Institutes as lecturers and conductors this spring. They are favorably known throughout our northern counties.

LEE CO. TEACHERS' INSTITUTE will be held at Sublette, April 22, and continue one week. Conducted by Wm. H. Haskell, of Canton.

MT. CARROLL.—We find in the *Weekly Mirror* a report of an examining committee appointed to visit the schools and attend examinations. The committee speak in high terms of the labor of the teachers and its results; the Union School under charge of Mr. and Mrs. Hayes and Mr. Hubbard is highly commended. Then the committee offer the following sharp criticism upon the school-officers and the

citizens of Mt. Carroll. We wish such an out-speaking committee were in every town.

If we add to this the difficulties under which the teachers have labored during the winter, the wonder is, not that we have such an excellent school, but that we can have any school at all. The idea of huddling a multitude of scholars into one large room — the windows rattling all day like a saw-mill; the children alternately roasted or frozen, in proportion as they can crowd close up to the red-hot stove or get crowded away; and then expecting the best-organized school in the world, is preposterous in the extreme. Few in this community know how these teachers have struggled; how faithful they have been; how many difficulties they have met and heroically overcome.

NORMAL.—Some of the papers have an item copied from the *Chicago Tribune* respecting an attempt to poison scholars at the Normal School by putting arsenic on their food. We knew of this matter before the *Teacher* of last month was made up, but did not wish to speak of it unless it should get into the papers. Some pupils of the Model School were poisoned by arsenic or perhaps by mixed poison put upon their dinners which had been left in their buckets or baskets in the dressing-room: one only was dangerously sick. The attempt seems to have been made on two different days, and upon different pupils; and it hardly seems to bear evidence of any purpose to take the life of any particular person. The actor and his motives — if he had any — are not yet known.

PIKE COUNTY.—The *Pike County Journal* is considerably 'exercised' by a special act of the Legislature conferring extraordinary powers upon the Pittsfield School Directors, by which that body is authorized to build a school-house costing not more than \$25,000, levy on annual tax of one per cent., and issue bonds to the amount of \$10,000; and the people of the district (which is likewise arbitrarily created) have no opportunity to accept or reject the act, or to influence the course of the directors. Such special legislation is very impolitic; we fear from our reading of a Springfield Session-daily that much of it was done last winter.

PUTNAM COUNTY.—They are having a lively time in Putnam just now. In Hennepin the School Directors have adopted rules which are odious to at least a portion of the citizens, and the latter have held public meetings, discussed school regulations, and passed resolutions requesting the Directors to modify their rules or resign. The rules were taken up in public meeting and approved or disapproved, one by one. Some of the rules appear to us arbitrary and inconvenient; but if every member of the meeting could have had a teacher's experience, the result would have been different. The citizens voted against a rule of unquestionable legality designed to secure uniformity of text-books! We have taught in a district in the Egyptian country where the people knew better than that.

Meanwhile another movement was in progress in a convention at Granville, a few miles distant, where there was an effort to secure uniformity of text-books. If we had the honor of a seat in this convention we should urge some reasons for thinking the object neither attainable nor desirable to the extent and by the means suggested there.

ROCK ISLAND.—We copy the following from the *Rock Island Argus*, and express our great pleasure in the generosity of the two boys named. Had they simply won the medal, we should have thought but little of it: but their magnanimous

agreement to forego the possession of it is worthy of esteem above all school honors and all intellectual proficiency:

At the commencement of the last term of school Mr. Reynolds offered a silver napkin-ring as a prize to the girl who should stand highest, and Mr. Hardy offered a silver medal to the boy who should stand highest. At the close of the term, Abby Wright stood *perfect*, and the ring was awarded to her.

George P. Frysjinger and Ed. H. Bowman, two boys who had sat side and side during the whole of the term and had recited in the same class, were found to be *perfect*, and both entitled to the medal. Before Mr. Hardy spoke to them on the subject they had agreed not to take the medal by lot, or any game of chance, but to ask a written certificate of Mr. Hardy, setting forth their qualifications and standing, and then award the medal to the boy who stood next highest on the list. As they had both won it, nobly, it was decided that they should both have medals precisely alike.

LEGISLATIVE ACTS RELATING TO EDUCATION.

[THE following Amendatory Act was omitted last month in consequence of a misunderstanding. We named its most essential features in an editorial.—Ed.]

AN ACT TO AMEND THE FREE SCHOOL LAW OF ILLINOIS, AS AMENDED AND APPROVED FEB. 21, 1859.—*Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly, That the above designated Act be amended as follows:*

SEC. 1. Add to the twentieth section: "All questions and controversies arising under the School Law in the several counties, shall first be submitted to the School Commissioner for his opinion and advice, whence appeal may be taken to the State Superintendent, upon a written statement of facts, subscribed by the School Commissioner and certified by representatives of each party concerned." Provided that nothing in this act shall be construed to vest the School Commissioners or Superintendent with judicial power.

Change the first twelve lines of the thirty-fifth section so that they shall read as follows: "Pupils may be transferred from one district to another, either in the same or in different townships, only upon the written consent of the directors of both districts. The school thus formed shall be under the control of the directors of the district in which it is kept. A separate schedule shall be kept for each district, upon the return of which to the trustees of the proper township they shall instruct their treasurer to pay the amount certified in said schedule to be due, to the teacher entitled thereto; and such separate schedule, duly certified, shall be taken by the several boards of trustees and their treasurers, as evidence of the consent of directors, unless objection be made, in writing, by two directors of one of the districts concerned. The aforesaid written permits shall be returned to and filed by the teacher of said school, and shall be evidence of said permission."

§ 2. Change the first twenty-seven lines of the forty-second section of said act so as to read as follows: "The annual election of school directors shall be on the first Monday of August, when one director shall be elected in each district, who shall hold his office for three years, and until his successor is elected. In new districts the first election may be on any Monday, notice being given by the township treasurer, as for the election of trustees, when three directors shall be elected, who shall, at their first meeting, draw lots for their respective terms of office for one, two, and three years. When vacancies occur, the remaining director or directors shall, without delay, order an election to fill such vacancies. Notices of all elections in organized districts shall be given by the directors at least ten days previous to the day of said election.

Said notices shall be posted in at least three of the most public places in the district, and shall specify the place where such election is to be held, the time of opening and closing the polls, and the question or questions to be voted on. Two of the directors shall act as judges and one as clerk of said election. But if said directors shall fail to attend, or refuse to act when present, and in unorganized districts, the legal voters when assembled shall choose three of their number to act as judges, and one as clerk of said election. *Provided*, that if upon the day appointed for said election, the said directors or judges shall be of opinion that on account of the small attendance of voters, the public good requires it, or if the voters present, or a majority of them, desire it, they shall postpone said election until the next Monday at the same place and hour, when the voters shall proceed as if it were not an adjourned meeting. *And provided, also*, that if notice shall not have been given as above required, then said election may be ordered as aforesaid and holden on the third Monday in August, or any other Monday, notice thereof being given as aforesaid. In case of a tie the judges shall decide it by lot on the day of election. The directors shall appoint one of their number clerk, who shall keep a record of all the official acts of the board in a well-bound book provided for the purpose, which record shall be submitted to the township treasurer for his inspection and approval, on the first Mondays of April and October, and at such other times as the township treasurer may require. Directors are authorized to use any funds belonging to their district and not otherwise appropriated, for the purchase of a suitable book for their records, and the said records shall be kept in a punctual, orderly, and reliable manner."

Strike out the word 'county' before the word 'collector' in the thirty-third line of the forty-fifth section.

SECTION 3. Strike out all before the first '*proviso*' in the fiftieth section, and substitute the following: "The school commissioner shall, either in person or by one or more competent examiners whom he shall appoint, examine any person proposing to teach a common school in the county in Orthography, Reading in English, Penmanship, Arithmetic, English Grammar, Modern Geography, and the History of the United States; and if he or they shall be satisfied that such person is of good moral character, and qualified to teach all the aforesaid branches, he or they shall give such person a certificate, the grade of which shall be determined by the relative merit of the examination sustained. School commissioners shall be authorized by this act to issue three grades of teachers' certificates, viz: First Grade, valid in the county for two years; Second Grade, valid in the county for one year; Third Grade, valid in a given district only, for six months. The commissioner may renew such certificate at its expiration by indorsement thereon, and he may revoke the same, for gross immorality, incompetency, or other adequate cause. Said certificate may be in the following form:

_____, Illinois, _____, 186 .
_____ County.

The undersigned, having examined _____ in Orthography, Reading in English, Penmanship, Arithmetic, English Grammar, Modern Geography, and the History of the United States; and being satisfied that _____ is of good moral character, hereby certify that _____ qualifications in all the above branches are such as to entitle _____ to this certificate, being of the _____ Grade, and valid in _____ for _____ from the date hereof; renewable at the option of the school commissioner by his indorsement thereon.

Given under _____ hand, at the date aforesaid.

A. B., School Commissioner.
C. D., }
E. F., } Examiners.

Each school commissioner shall also keep a careful record, in a book provided for the purpose, of all the candidates to whom he issues certificates; noting the date of examination; the name, sex, and age of the candidate, and the grade of the certificate granted; a transcript of which record shall be included in the annual report to the Superintendent.

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction shall also be and is hereby authorized to grant and issue State Certificates of eminent qualifications as teachers, to such persons as may be found worthy to receive the same, upon due examination by himself or others whom he shall appoint for that purpose, and who shall exhibit satisfactory evidence of practical experience and success in teaching

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ALTHOUGH greatly improved, the *paging of the reading matter remains unaltered*, so the books can be used in the same classes with previous editions; and the slight advance in price of several of the early volumes, leaves them *20 per cent. lower in price* than other reading books of similar style.

In order to keep pace with the progress of the arts, and the increasing demand for more elegance and taste in the manufacture of school-books, we have newly electrotyped and added new and elegant cuts to the PICTORIAL PRIMER, the FIRST, SECOND, and THIRD READERS, and have improved the quality of the paper, making them, on the whole, *equal to the best, and better than most* of the Reading-Books in the market. In addition to this, the Author has made a thorough revision of the books, adding definitions to each spelling lesson in the Second, third, and Fourth Readers, and in a portion of the First, thus making these books more attractive and useful than ever before.

The FIFTH READER has been newly electrotyped, and twenty-eight pages of new matter added, embracing selections from the pens of Braucroft, Hitchcock, Bethune, Bryant, Bayard Taylor, Dr. Kane, Prof. Mitchel, Holmes, Mrs. Hale, Mrs. Howitt, etc.

Our DESCRIPTIVE CATALOGUE contains some 25 Octavo pages of strong Testimonials from State Superintendents, Principals of Normal Schools, State Boards of Education, Presidents and Professors of Colleges, and hundreds of experienced and successful Teachers, as well as commendatory reviews from the religious and literary press. Referring to the previous numbers of our Circular, and our Catalogue for the above, we now offer a few current notices which, being just written and since the appearance of rival books, will show that up to the present time *Sanders keeps the field*.

In the Academies of the State of New York the last Regents' Report of January, 1861, states them to be in about 100 out of the 184 teaching reading.

The Hon. V. M. DICK, late State Superintendent of Schools, New York, said, after examination of the various Reading Books used in the State, that he "became convinced of the real excellence of SANDERS'S SERIES as being eminently progressive, and judiciously graduated to the capacities of the different classes of pupils. That they are of a high order of literary merit, and unexceptionable in their moral influences, seems to be the unanimous opinion of our ablest educators throughout the Union who have examined them."

That they are still so regarded, notwithstanding recent attempts to rival them, will be seen by the following

RECENT NOTICES.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
Superintendent's Office, New York, February 25th, 1861 }

I take pleasure in acknowledging the receipt of a complete set of your new and beautiful edition of *Sanders's School Readers* for the use of this department. These works are still in use in most of our Public Schools, and continue to give general satisfaction to Teachers, School-Officers, and pupils.
S. S. RANDALL, City Superintendent.

ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

MAY, 1861.

NUMBER 5.

IMPORTANCE OF THE DICTIONARY IN THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

THE principal use to which the Dictionary may be applied is in the definition of words. How wonderful are words! How insignificant as mere shapes—as mere sounds! how expressive as embodiments of meaning! Each word is a precious treasury. Each little word is the repository of a thought or a fragment of thought. Like magnetism in the steel, or like spirit in the body, so lies the meaning in the word. Almost all of human knowledge is wrapped up in these tiny forms, hundreds and thousands of arbitrary signs, each suggestive of some idea! Whether we think in words or not, it is hard to conceive of the possession of much accurate knowledge without them. Words swept away,—Natural Science and Literature would flow back into the vast unknown. All knowledge is an absolute boundless ocean. From it we have dipped a few drops of truth. These drops are contained in words. How precious, then, are words! “In them,” says one, “are stores of moral and historic truth, and no less of passion and imagination, laid up—lessons of infinite worth, which we may derive from them if our attention is awakened to their existence.”

A writer declares that every new language a man learns gives him a new soul; for it conveys to him as many new shades of thought as there are words in that language. Strictly speaking, there are no synonyms, that is, words of identical signification.

Astonishing ignorance of the definition of words is displayed not

only by the students in our schools, but by teachers themselves. At a recent Teacher's Examination in Ohio the word *Judicial* was defined as 'rather particular'. The word *Attorney* was said to be 'the name of a general'; while *Antipodes* was variously defined as 'the name of an ancient people', 'the name of a great mathematician', 'a feeling of *discomfit*'. Truly, it is hard to tolerate such ignorance among teachers in this age of intelligence. The student who permits himself to read or study with an imperfect understanding of the language he passes over is not only in danger of making ludicrous blunders in the application of words, but he actually fails to receive much of the benefit that a little attention to the Dictionary would insure him. His labor is, in a measure, lost. One unacquainted with Greek might as well presume to be benefited by poring over a copy of the original *Iliad*, as to expect to gain an appreciative knowledge of Milton without an acquaintance with English Lexicology. The student should be incited to study the derivation of words, that his understanding of them may be clear and accurate. With what new interest will he view thousands of common words when he has traced out their simple and beautiful etymology. While our excellent dictionaries enable him to do this in many important instances, they also afford him the means of avoiding an error into which a mere knowledge of etymologies may lead. I allude to the misapplication of words whose original signification has changed, or whose figurative meanings may be widely different from their literal. Another danger to which students are liable is that of associating words that resemble each other in sound or appearance but differ in signification. This may be illustrated by reference to the prevalent fault in translating certain Latin terms. Thus, 'crimen' is improperly rendered *crime*; 'virtus', *virtue*; 'calamitas', *calamity*, etc. So we have known a boy to define *sentient*, 'pertaining to the senses', doubtless thinking of the word *sensual*. So a gentleman made a ludicrous blunder in writing *incontinency* for *inconstancy*. The same person made use of the word *collision* when it was evident that he meant *collusion*. It is only by habitual attention to the Dictionary that we can acquaint ourselves with the various forms of words and their authorized use.

We are now led to consider the second important office of the Dictionary, which is to impart a correct and uniform orthography. Spelling can not be learned by theory. A few general rules for spelling we have, but they are of no great use practically. The principles of our orthography are arbitrary. The various combinations of letters must be learned by direct application of the attention, and retained by a special effort of the memory. It must be learned as a particular

fact that the last syllable of the word *supersede* begins with an *s*; that the first syllable of the word *necessary* ends with a *c*. Word after word must be examined and referred to as often as a doubt arises as to its correct orthography. The spelling-books contain but few of the words in use in our language; therefore, he who would gain an extensive knowledge of English orthography must make the Dictionary his constant companion. This he must do, also, to learn pronunciation. It is true, pronunciation varies in different localities, and is ever liable to change. It is difficult to arrive at any standard of correct orthography. That standard is to be sought in what is termed established usage. This is best exhibited in our Dictionaries. "From these," Walker justly remarks, "the general current of custom with respect to the sound of words may be collected with almost as much certainty as the general sense of words from Johnson."

Besides the general uses of the Dictionary which we have briefly discussed, there are many special uses which, it is feared, are not fully understood or appreciated in our schools. Hardly can a student thoroughly prepare himself for recitation in any branch of study without reference to a reliable Dictionary. Some of its uses in grammatical investigations may be here enumerated.

1st. It may assist the student in discerning the parts of speech.

2d. It enables him to determine the irregular forms of words, as the plurals of irregular nouns and the conjugation of irregular verbs.

3d. It often exhibits peculiar constructions and explains idioms. It distinguishes between transitive and intransitive verbs; shows the right use of prepositions, etc.

In a geography class the Dictionary may be employed —

1st. In deciding the pronunciation of names.

2d. In extending the student's knowledge of the various productions, etc., mentioned in the lesson.

3d. In defining many scientific terms, especially in Physical Geography.

In mathematical studies the Dictionary is in daily requisition in the definition and pronunciation of words, as well as in the study of abbreviations, etc.

In the preparation of a composition, or any written exercise, the Dictionary is indispensable. It must be consulted for Orthography and for Definition. No one should allow himself to attempt to write a word until he is sure he can spell it; no one permit himself to use a word until he knows its precise meaning and appropriate application. Nor should a writer be content to use a word which will but vaguely

express his thought, when *the* word which will clearly and forcibly convey his idea is available. Since the discussion of synonyms has been introduced into our Dictionaries, the student has ample opportunity of cultivating a critical and discriminating taste in the use of language.

We have briefly shown that the Dictionary has its important uses in connection with all the studies of the common school. We may add, that it might be profitably used not merely for occasional reference, but as a class-book for direct and special study. The learner will find it a boundless field of interesting investigation. Indeed, one deprived of all other books could obtain a fair literary and scientific education from our American Dictionaries. These are of all sizes, from diminutive pocket editions to the massive pictorial volumes of Webster and Worcester. They are of all prices, from twenty-five cents to twelve dollars, so that no one need plead poverty as an excuse for not owning one. They are adapted to all classes of learners, from the little child just beginning to read to the disciplined collegiate. Nor are they, like most other text-books, destined to become useless lumber on the graduate's shelves. They must ever claim importance as books of reference, and if they do not always contain the life of language they will contain its *history*. That the student actually engaged in school-studies needs a Dictionary almost every hour, is hardly a questionable proposition. That the general reader finds use for it let every literary devotee testify. That it is indispensable to the teacher, who will deny? In short, that it is a desirable companion for the intelligent in every department of life, is true.

From what has been said, it will be seen readily that every pupil in our schools ought to be provided with a Dictionary of convenient size for use. It should lie on his desk, an ever-present, trustworthy guide to accurate knowledge. It is not a book to borrow or to lend, but to keep close at hand,—a necessary instrument in the business of education, as indispensable as slate or pencil, map or chart.

Not only should each pupil have a suitable Dictionary of his own, but every school-room ought, by all means, to be furnished with one or both of our large national Dictionaries. These may be referred to by the teacher's permission in cases in which the smaller works are not sufficiently explicit, or on which they fail to give the desired information. Let teachers urge the importance to each pupil of the possession of a Dictionary for himself; and the sooner such provision is made, the better will it be for our schools, the better for our reputation as teachers, and the better for the cause of general education.

LEBANON, OHIO, FEB., 1861.

THE SYMPATHIES OF KNOWLEDGE AND GREATNESS.

WE once knew a youth, in one of the rural districts, of fair intellect, and not devoid of some ambition to shine, who, on the demise of his father, found himself possessed of a handsome fortune and two years of leisure before his majority. We advised him to employ the time in some good seminary to the general improvement of his mind, before he should be compelled by circumstances to attend to the improvement of his farms. "Oh, no," he replied, with such an air of generous condescension toward his poor benighted neighbors, that he seemed then and there to enter them on his books 'Doctors of eternal gratitude' for the kindness — "No; I expect to spend my days right here, among *these people*, you know, and I do n't want to do any thing that would carry me out of their sphere and sympathies."

It *would* be a pity to know too much to enjoy the society of common people, certainly; and the knowledge which makes others less interesting, and ourselves worse neighbors, would hardly be worth two years of study and *income* to the young man who 'might be, you know, if he would'. But our friend of the rural district made precisely the capital mistake which many and greater men have made before, in supposing that the more a man is individually, the less he becomes socially; the greater his mind, the less his sympathies,—a notion fostered by some unhappy genius with no fellowship among mankind, and no button on his shirt-collar, seated aloft on the cold crags of his egotism, and wailing out his superior soul for the pity and admiration of the very groundlings he affects to despise. He is wrong and they are all wrong. His painful isolation of genius is mere gin and water, their unsocial knowledge is a natural want of geniality, and my rural friend's disease was mental laziness.

Thus, under one disguise and another, the specious lie is nursed, and wisdom is defrauded of her dues.

So far from being the enemy of society, true knowledge is a living fountain of sympathies, that the higher it leaps into the regions of pure air, the wider it scatters the refreshing showers and is welcomed by a broader circle of refreshing greenness. He who has but one room can respectably lodge but one friend, but the house of many apartments is the recipient of many guests.

A brain well stored, like a well-filled larder, has a delicacy for every taste; while the poor wit, replenished with one or two poor thoughts

only, can do no more than serve up its grand variety of 'fish and potato', 'potato and fish', and 'cold eod'.

Knowledge never removes one from sympathy with any thing humanly worthy, in however humble a sphere. From baseness and vulgarity, vice and unclean fancies, all fit education does tend to remove you, and shield you with a quicker feeling of disgust; and it is the glory of knowledge that it does so, and a double disgrace to the learned if it fail to do it. But the lowest office is invested with new interest by the mind which can analyze the material it works in. You are not less but more prepared to meet the coal-digger in a kindly chat, for knowing that in the dark storehouse he is unpacking the garnered sunshine of long-gone ages, the treasured vegetation of a former world, laid by for the inevitable wants of this. You have closer sympathies with the hod-carrier for being able to trace the genealogy of his lime and sand to the world-crushing forces of fire and frost, and earthquake spasms, that ground his material from the ribs of treeless continents; and to the millions of minute workers who, bone by bone, built up with their tiny skeletons the gigantic beds of lime-rock to be the cement of a new world's cities, cots, and palaces.

The stone-cutter finds strange figures and traces in the solid rock; and if not a Hugh Miller himself, he will be very glad to find one in you, and will not discover in his simplicity that you are a whit the less companionable for being able to show him there the very fishes and reptiles that made earth crawl and quiver with life uncounted ages ago. Aye, the hand that hews will get a new vigor for its work in the new interest which a little knowledge can impart, which will at once put to the blush my rural friend, with his self-sacrifice, and his great abettors with their wonderful self-conceit.

You may easily believe that, even if the apprehension were well founded, the opportunities and capacities of most of us would not make the pursuit of knowledge alarming to the conservators of our social interests. Were exceeding wisdom really the sad eremite he fancied, our young friend could have prudently entered into her courts for a little while, and still have hoped to come down to the comprehension of common minds.

Wordsworth, though reputed to be the greatest poet of the nineteenth century, we are assured on the authority of an old peasant woman, 'could talk real sensible like'; and a certain stage-driver in New Hampshire, who had the pleasure of 'footing it' up some of his grand old hills with Agassiz and his fellow professors, assured a brother whip 'that they were right smart chaps', and he 'believed they called 'em *naturals*'.

When a man can not reach the sympathies of children and the unlearned, it is not too much knowledge that hinders, but the utter ignorance of what to do with the little he has. His wits are put up, like an entomologist's bugs, with Latin labels, and knowing their names so well himself, he forgets to translate them. Hobnail knows the bug by sight as well as he; but, described in that awful terminology of pedantic science, even *pillularius* goes by as a rare, astonishing exotic, unknown to Hobnail, who can only hold his nose and wonder how the thing 'came to smell so like a tumble-bug'.

As with knowledge, so with all progressive greatness, which follows the true symmetry of nature. Thought by thought, force by force, the growing man expands, but ever is broadening the base of his greatness as he rises by slow increase to the regal heights of his being. His growth is pyramidal, not columnar.

True greatness is the focal point of all below it, the concentrated sympathies of many common minds in one surpassing mind. Its foundation spreads wider and wider as its apex climbs higher and higher. From the deep, wide basis of our common humanity, a myriad of lines concentrated with the lightening of a myriad new sympathies in one glowing point, which, because it is higher than all around it, comprehends all. The great man will perhaps have nothing which may not be found in the thousands of little men about him. It is not that a new element has been introduced to exalt him, but that in him the scattered fragments of human excellence incarnated in many are combined and intensified in one.

Shakspeare expresses not only the improved jurist, king, bishop, and philosopher, but in him the wag, the clown, the very fool and underling, are more perfectly uttered than they could utter themselves. Every inch of his stature that reaches above the common mind puts him in more intimate relations with a wider brotherhood. No woman can be more womanly than he, no monarch more regal, no roysterer more uproarious and merry. The scattered rays of genius, skill, thought, passion, and poetry, are centred in one burning core of life and soul, and thus 'Will the Wizard' is immortal just because he is so many less men all in one.

There is no greatness, verily human, which can escape the human basis, high as ever it may soar into the divinest altitudes of being.

It is not improbable that human perfection exists now, diffused and scattered all over humanity; and when it shall be incarnated in a single form—if ever it may be—that he who bears it will be the best brother of all, the nearest and dearest companion of all. As the progressive mind takes up one after another of these divorced virtues and

excellences, he takes with them the threads of relationship with more and more of the great brotherhood of man.

With him who has but one point of sympathy to-you-ward, you are no *less* related because you have a thousand points which take electric pulses from a thousand souls. It is true, you carry a large share of your whole being out of his sphere; but it is also true that the very relationship, your lesser being held to him, is greater by your growth, and each little soul that touches you at a single point is richer for all your wealth. When you pass forward to reading, you do not ignore the alphabet; when you advance to the higher mathematics, you do not drop the primary rules, but on the ever-broadening foundation of first principles build the immovable structure of your greatness.

Conn. Com. School Jour., April, 1861.

VIRTUE AND HEALTH FROM EIGHT TO SIXTEEN.

LORD SHAFTSBURY recently stated in a public meeting in London, that, from personal observation, he had ascertained that of the adult male criminals of that city nearly all had fallen into a course of crime between the ages of eight and sixteen years; and that if a young man lived an honest life up to twenty years of age, there were forty-nine chances in his favor and one against him as to an honorable life thereafter.

Thus it is in the physical world. Half of all who are born die under twenty years of age, while four-fifths of all who reach that age, and die before another 'score', owe their death to causes of disease which were originated in their 'teens'. On a careful inquiry it will be ascertained that in nearly all cases the causes of moral and premature physical death, are pretty much one and the same, and are laid between the ages of 'eight and sixteen years'. This is a fact of startling import to fathers and mothers, and shows a fearful responsibility. Certainly, a parent should secure and retain and exercise absolute control over the child until sixteen: it can not be a difficult matter to do this, except in very rare cases; and if that control is not wisely and efficiently exercised, it must be the parent's fault—it is owing to parental neglect or remissness. Hence the real source of ninety-eight per cent. of the crime of a country such as England and the United States lies at the door of the parents. It is a fearful reflection; we throw it before the minds of the fathers and mothers of our land, and there leave it to be thought of in wisdom, remarking only as to the

early seeds of bodily disease, that they are in nearly every case sown between sun-down and bed-time, in absence from the family circle, in the supply of spending-money never earned by the spender, opening the doors of confectioneries and soda-fountains, of beer and tobacco and wine, of the circus, the negro-minstrel, the restaurant, and the dance; then follow the Sunday excursion, the Sunday drive, with easy transition to the company of those whose ways lead down to the gates of social, physical and moral ruin. From 'eight to sixteen'! in these few years are the destinies of children fixed! in forty-nine cases out of fifty; fixed by the parent! Let every father and every mother solemnly vow, "By God's help, I'll fix my darling's destiny for good by making home more attractive than the street."

Hall's Journal of Health.

THE ONE-SIDEDNESS OF GRAMMATICAL AND RHETORICAL TEACHING.

MR. MARSH, in the first lecture of his series on the *English Language*, briefly states the argument with which he would refute the position that the direct, conscious study of their own languages by numerous modern scholars is a sign that these languages are in a state of decay. Considering the relation to Livy and Virgil in which stand Priscian and Donatus, famous writers on the Latin language in its decadence, the professed grammarian of the present day must need for his consolation the firm faith entertained by Mr. Marsh. But the belief of the distinguished student of English in regard to the significance of his professional labor, as much as it makes for his own dignity, seems by no means arbitrary. It is not only a comfortable conviction, but one very acceptable to reason. The modern man of culture knows himself, philosophizes, painfully questions the aim of life. Self-consciousness is no longer his peril, but the very foundation of his development. Homer and Herodotus are now impossible; but slavery is discussed and theological dogmas are tested by the individual intellects of vast numbers of men. The modern world is strong and progressive through its very unrest. It scrutinizes all departments of material prosperity, all religious beliefs, and, of course, its language. Therefore we decide without misgiving that, though we have learned not to look for lectures on the Latin language till that language is visibly dead, we will not tremble for our mother tongue when we see scores of dissectors laying bare its anatomy.

Let then the grammatic art be justified, because it bodes no ill. On the other hand, the positive value of the science of philology is very great. That department which treats of the means by which the human soul expresses itself can have but few superiors in rank of dignity. Far above the sciences which deal with matter, it deserves to stand very near to theology and mental philosophy. But as the deepest lore of the theologian, when uttered in his dogmas, is inadequate, nay, even hostile, to the truth of the young, seeking soul, so are the dictations of the philologist very often oppressive when one would speak naturally the thought or the sentiment that seeks expression. It is no incivility to the doctor, either of divinity or philology, to prefer far other rules than his for the conduct and practice of life. The results of his researches or abstract thinking interest us as searchers and thinkers ; but we also have our oracles.

The investigator of the history or vocabulary of a language is very frequently not content with stating his discoveries and theories. His generalizations assume the form of dictation, and men are warned against forms of speech which had hitherto conveyed their meaning. Correspondent with this tendency of the philologists is the readiness of all persons who have once fairly entertained the idea of culture to accept their prescription. Refined persons keep guard over two things,—their manners and their speech. Your solecisms indicate ill-breeding. When the self-possession is disturbed, the speech becomes incoherent. The tongue of the man, like that of a pair of scales, indicates whether he is well-balanced. People versed in good society manage these matters with graceful ease and carelessness. Their facility is the despair of the new-comer. He has his idea on the subject of the conversation, but it avails not. He has compromised his own freedom of speech by beholding a freedom still greater and yet more obedient to law.

Propriety in the use of language must then hold a very prominent place in the system of education which professedly aims to develop the man. For this propriety is not only demanded by culture as its first stepping-stone, but it is henceforward to form the very sign of culture, the indication that it exists. Do we not here express the present attitude of education toward the science and discipline of grammar? Principles and rules are to be learned by the pupil, not like mathematics, as apparatus for mental gymnastics, but for daily application. Habits of speech imported from the family and the street, or, perhaps, outgrowths of the very nature itself of the learner, are to be trimmed away. Grammatical precision is insisted upon as the standard of perfection. The teacher rarely thinks of going beyond the

statement 'it is ungrammatical' to find the reason for a correction which troubles the inquiring pupil. The grammar itself is the ultimatum; and the art is to train the learner to express his idea or thought in such a manner as not to violate a single rule.

In the higher department of rhetoric, which embraces the study of styles, analogous statements will still hold good. An objective standard is alone presented. The pupil bears such directions as pertain to *choice of styles*. Irving or Macaulay is recommended. *Model* is a frequent word in this province.

Grammar and rhetoric, therefore, like the other dogmatic departments of education, are one-sided. Neither in physics or in ethics is the stated law concentric with the growth and health of the man. In vain does the rhetorician protest that he will not pretend to teach what to say, but only how to say it. No fault can be imputed to him or to his science. Rule and canon are by nature partial. A double law governs every conscious utterance. First, the soul itself, which is impelled to body forth a thought, has its own character, distinct, and twin to no other. This, too, is immediately concerned in the speech of the tongue. It is not that the mind in an interior sanctuary elaborates the thought, and, having delivered this over to other faculties for utterance, is no longer occupied therewith. Words are as natural as blushes on the cheek, or gestures of the arms. In the very thought or feeling itself lies its only appropriate manifestation. The soul is the final and supreme law of its own utterance. But this grand law is obeyed only by persons who occupy the extremes of culture. The speech and the manners of the most ignorant have a charm cognate with that possessed by persons of the very highest development. Between these two classes is the great mass of men and women in every civilized country, who consciously acknowledge allegiance to a second law, viz: Duty with regard to their expression.

One-sidedness is not then a feature peculiar to grammatical discipline. To acknowledge it as existing here is not perhaps so important as to acknowledge it in some other departments of discipline. The perception of the validity of laws hostile to the scholastic ones, of the equal truth of opposite propositions in any realm of thought, will be very wholesome to the teacher. *Pupils* have a truth also. To insist on your own is one side; to acknowledge theirs is the other. The practical application of what have seemed our too speculative statements suggests itself readily in many ways. The study of linguistic science, from the elements of grammar up to rhetoric and criticism, presents, on its positive side, innumerable relationships with morals and the study of character, so that a comprehensive view of it must

involve deeper things than etymology and syntax. We speak now of the study of language, not as an interesting object of scientific investigation, but as the means of conversation and of literature.

The sturdy, forcible English of the bar-room or the street, vulgar and profane as it may be, is one of the best dialects for getting any thing well expressed. Emerson finds a place in the diversity of talent for good swearers. The speech of these rude men is not strained. It may lack certain graces, but the compensation works strongly in their favor. With what degree of self-possession, brother teachers, do you deport yourself among the free and easy vagabonds who have no fear of the proprieties? We assert this as the criterion of the goodness of a man's English; that it be as strong as his thought. Meanwhile we do not deny the authority of the grammar. But the two sides are not coördinate. Nature bears expressing, and the language of persons who care not to conceal is beautiful. How coarse and unrestrained is Shakspeare in almost every scene. We are amused to hear pious persons wish he had been sanctified. But they lack the virtue, and Shakspeare possessed it to the full. The dialect which grows up among boys at their games and quarrels is excellent. Their compositions are painfully constrained. I find, when I overhear boys bantering each other with sarcasms, that they need not my exposition of principles and enforcement of rules in order to put language to its proper use. In their exercises and in their conversation with me their speech is emasculated, and evidently needs grammatical treatment.

This natural language of children should be acknowledged by the teacher as more proper than that to which he is trying to train them. They have their own *jus*, if not their *norma, loquendi*. But the normal discipline is not to be esteemed the less, because it is seen not to reach the root of the matter. The attitude of the teacher toward the pupil will, however, be modified by a recognition of the higher element. Submission to grammatical law, within its jurisdiction, is indispensable. At the same time, the thoughtful teacher will observe a certain generosity with regard to the application of rules. We would not esteem a friend the less for occasional neglect of the principles of grammar, nor would we deem it our duty to chide him for such faults. Let such a relation of friendship prevail to some degree with the pupil. Train him as well to forgive your inaccuracies as to strive against them himself. The developing youth will surely see these things one day in their true light, and probably remember his pedagogue as a pedantic, one-sided man. One need never condescend

to talk with boys on their own level. One will do well to try to come up to it some times.

The student who has progressed to the study of rhetoric and the criticism of authors may at the outset be taught a higher rule than that of elegance. Buffon's epigrammatic saying — 'The style is the man' — needs no modification. Cultivation of style should be self-culture. Only to the mere critic does the style possess interest of itself. The developed man comes at last to understand this, and has his favorite authors. That would be a rare devotee to the neat and pretty, who should spend the literary leisure of his life in seeking and enjoying the elegant writers simply for their elegance. Dr. Johnson recommends that one 'devote his days and nights to the study of Addison', if he wishes to become master of the English language. Goethe advises a clear and sure comprehension of the thought, as the condition of the like success. The difference is that between a pedant and a seer. The recommendation in the rhetorics of authors suitable to the young seems paltry, even to disgust, as soon as an enthusiasm has taken possession of the mind. The teacher's zeal, and not his enforcement of rhetorical canons, is effectual and contagious. No man was ever yet zealous for a negative excellence.

The arch-heretic and most notable despiser of models at the present day is, of course, Thomas Carlyle. The style of this great man has to receive the malignant attacks of those who can not reach the level of his thought. But Carlyle is above criticism. Grant that the style is the man, that, consequently, Carlyle is an odd man. What then? An odd man!

The rhetoric lesson should reveal the real *rhetor*, the utterer of thought; and unveil the machinery with which the false and affected one makes his loud noise. The virtue of a style will not be tested by comparison with a production of the past. Let us be ready to welcome a manner of speech more dreadful than even that of Carlyle, whenever such becomes the appointed embodiment of a new character. Peculiarities come not within the province of criticism; nor is precedent its law. The best language is not that which comes nearest to Addison's, but that which best expresses the soul. Let us ever express new thoughts made known to us with new tongues.

Rhode Island Schoolmaster, March, 1861.

DR. HOLLAND describes a certain dismal class of people — the grumblers — as "sitting on the north side of the tree of life, and peeling rotten apples with a rusty knife."

A GENERAL EXERCISE.—THE APPLE WORM.

A GENERAL exercise may be introduced occasionally, with pupils, into any district school, after or before the usual lessons for the day have been completed. Care should be taken to select subjects from beyond the limits of the school-room and disconnected with the studies therein pursued, that the interest of the pupils may be excited and instruction imparted. From the various departments of Natural History the teacher can not fail to draw many subjects for exercises of such a character as shall engage the earnest attention and be of permanent value to his pupils. The following is given as an example, which may be improved upon to any extent within the teacher's capacity :

Teacher (holding an apple in his hand).—What is this which I hold in my hand?

Pupils.—A Baldwin. A Spitzenburg. An Apple.

Teacher.—Which do you think is the right answer, Charles?

Charles.—The last one—an apple, sir.

Teacher.—Right. Now observe it closely : Do you see any thing peculiar in its appearance?

Pupils.—No, sir. Yes, sir. It is wormy.

Teacher.—One of you says it is wormy. What do you mean by that?

Charles.—There is a worm-hole in it, sir.

Teacher.—Very well. How came it to be there?

Pupils think it a rather simple question, but at last little Tommy Smith, who has been much interested in the proceedings, says, "I guess a worm made it."

Teacher.—True. Now can any one tell when and how it was made?

James.—I know it is a worm-hole and a worm made it, and that's all.

Teacher.—Well, James, a great many *older* children are content with that knowledge ; it is sufficient for them to observe the effect, without knowing or caring for the cause or means. But it is our duty, as scholars and learners, to search for the means by which results are produced ; to learn the whys and wherefores, so far as practicable, of whatever comes within our observation. With this end in view, I shall try to tell you something about the subject under consideration.

Did you ever see any birds which you called 'blow-pickers' in your orchards?

William.—Oh! yes, sir, I have seen a good many flocks in our orchard, and I shot a good many last spring.

Teacher.—What did you shoot them for, William?

William.—'Cause they picked off the blossoms, and made the apples blight.

Teacher.—How do you know they do?

William.—I saw them picking; and that's what every body says.

Teacher.—Every body makes a great mistake, William. The birds do not eat or pick off the blossoms of young fruit, which could possess but little nutrition. They live principally upon insects, and it is these they are searching for in the blossoms, and of which they destroy thousands each day.

Mary.—But what about the worm-hole?

Teacher.—I am coming to that directly. Among the insects upon the apple-blossoms was a little insect called the 'codling moth'. This moth deposits an egg in the *calyx* or blossom of the young fruit, from which soon hatches a little worm which, in that stage of its existence, is called the *larva*. This worm begins eating the young apple, and continues to increase in size as the apple grows, until it arrives at an age of a few months, when it leaves the apple, seeks some crevice where it fattens and covers itself with a fine, white, silky substance; its skin or outer coating becomes hard, and in this condition it remains through the winter in a dormant state; it is then termed the *pupa* or *chrysalis*. When the warm weather again comes, the pupa casts off its outer skin or covering, and becomes a moth, which again deposits its eggs, and passes through the changes above described. The moth, in its winged or perfect state, is termed the *imago*. Thus it has four states of existence; viz., the *egg*, the *larva*, the *pupa*, and the *imago*, or the perfect or winged insect. So you see the blow-picker was a friend, and not, as you supposed, an enemy; and the worm-hole was not a trivial affair after all. The science of which this lesson is an illustration is termed Entomology.

John, you may bring in an object for to-morrow's exercise. That will suffice; school is dismissed.

GEO. E. BRACKETT, in *Maine Teacher*, March, 1861.

THE secret of one's success or failure in nearly every enterprise is usually contained in the answer to the question—How earnest is he?

“ YOU ARE A STUPID BLOCKHEAD ! ”

ARE you sure of that? Is it not just possible that the boy's teacher is the stupid one? Are you quite certain that your questions or your explanations are expressed in intelligible language? Do n't you talk so rapidly that none but the brightest scholars can follow you? Does not your severity of manner frighten the poor fellow so that he can not tell what he knows perfectly? Are you not, in your anxiety to make him recite promptly and brilliantly, embarrassing him so that he can not recite at all? Have you ever done any thing to give that boy self-confidence? Have you ever heartily encouraged him, sympathized with him, made him feel that you are his friend? Have you ever earnestly tried to find the avenue to his heart? Say to yourself thoughtfully, ' After all, am not I the stupid one? '

But grant that the boy is naturally a ' stupid blockhead '. Is it his fault? Had he the making of his own brains? And is it not misfortune enough to have been born a blockhead without your repeatedly reminding him of the disagreeable fact? Will your statement make him any the brighter, or yourself the more amiable? Put yourself down in that boy's place. How much better would you feel, how much more clearly would you think, how much more cheerfully would you afterward study, if your teacher were to make a public announcement of your stupidity? Would you not be either utterly discouraged, or righteously indignant? What right, then, have you to outrage that scholar's feelings by your cutting words? If his father were sitting in your school-room, think you that you would utter such harsh words? And have you the thoughtlessness, or the meanness, to use language in the father's absence which you would be ashamed, and would not dare to use in his presence? Is it not your duty to remember that boy has sensibilities to be moved, feelings to be respected, as much as you have? And have not his parents a right to demand that you shall treat him with kindness and patience? Will you not do away, then, with all bitter words, assured that they do no good, but much harm?

H., in Mass. Teacher, Jan., 1861.

SAYS Jerrold: " Blessed be the hand that prepares pleasure for a child, for there is no saying when and where it may blossom forth."

THE VERBAL IN *ING*, CALLED THE PARTICIPLE.

IN my last article I promised next to give the history of the verbal form in *ing*, commonly called the participle. The history of this form will in some degree explain the true grammatical doctrine respecting it. I have generally found both young teachers and pupils at a loss in dealing with 'participles'; and I am satisfied that the trouble comes mainly from erroneous classification of words into parts of speech by our grammarians. Under this title are classed three distinct classes of words: I might fairly say four classes. We need not wonder then at the confusion in the minds of those to whom grammatical distinctions are at best difficult. "I have *loved*—a child *loved* by its parents—the teacher *loving* his pupils, treated them kindly—by *loving* his pupils he gained their confidence": here are four examples, in which the pupil is told that *loved* and *loving* are participles, while upon any reasonable principle of classification these words should go into four different classes. To make the matter worse, however, he is told that the verb *to love* furnishes yet other participles; *having loved*, *being loved*, and *having been loved*. Then again he is told by some that in the phrase 'a *loved* child', *loved* is an adjective and not a participle; but in the phrase 'a child *loved* by its parents', *loved* is a participle and not an adjective. *Œdipus* himself might despair and perish before such a sphynx.

I propose to deal only with the verbal which ends in *ing*, commonly called the active present participle; and though my task would be easier if I could first lay down a statement of the fundamental principles and distinctions of grammar, that basis can not be taken at present. I must take the usual vague and insufficient definitions and classifications for the present.

The principal use of the verb is to make the affirmation in a sentence. Including participles and infinitives with the verb, we shall find that in written English the office of the verb is to be the leading word in the predicate of a sentence in four-fifths of the instances in which it occurs. I find that the proportion varies in different authors. Predication then is the leading or principal function of verbal terms. But we have occasion to express the verbal idea in other relations than in predication: we may wish to express it substantively, to make an assertion in which it shall be in some one of the relations which a noun may have; or we may wish to use it attributively, in relations

which an adjective or an adverb may have; and for these purposes we need words formed from the verbal root. For these purposes our language affords a variety of forms, in many cases borrowing words from other languages to give variety or supply deficiencies. Thus, for example, take the verb *act*: if we wish to express the verbal idea as a substantive, we have the forms *to act, acting, act, action*; "to act is necessary—acting is necessary—action is necessary—an act is necessary": if we wish to express the verbal idea as an attribute or adjective, we have the one form *acting*; as, 'an acting president'. We generally have three substantive forms and but one adjective from any given verbal root. I give a few examples:

Substantive forms.			Adjective forms.
to be	being	_____	being
to exist	existing	existence	existing, existent
to love	loving	love	loving
to do	doing	deed	doing
to arrive	arriving	arrival	arriving
to attend	attending	attention	attending, attent
to write	writing	_____	writing
to relinquish	relinquishing	relinquishment	relinquishing
to believe	believing	belief	believing
to see	seeing	sight	seeing
to join	joining	junction	joining

The first of the substantive forms is the infinitive, and belongs to all verbs except those commonly listed as defective. The second is the form in *ing*, generally called the participle, but which should be called the gerund. The third form is not to be found from all verbs, but is frequently found, and gives variety of expression to our language. The adjective form pertains to all verbs except defectives, and is the true participle.

In the Latin language there are more substantive and adjective verbals than in English. The infinitive may be used as a substantive. The gerund is a form of the verb almost exactly like our verbal in *ing* when it is used substantively: the Latin gerund has cases, and can be modified by objective and adverbial elements like the verbs from which they are formed. The supine is another verbal noun, having two cases, and some times limited by an objective element: our infinitive best renders its meaning. Beside these, the nouns in *io* of the third declension and in *us* of the fourth, when derived from verbs, are like the words of the third column above in syntactical relations. Adjective verbals to be ranked as true participles were more abundant than in English: the participle ending in *us* corresponds to our participle in *ing* used as an adjective term: beside this there was in

Latin a future participle, to which we have nothing analogous. In the passive were two participles.

In the Anglo-Saxon language there was an adjective form like our verbal in *ing* when used adjectively: it was put in adjective relations to nouns, and at the same time retained the characteristics of the verb from which it was derived, being limited by objective elements or adverbial elements of time and space, just like the verb from which it was derived. This corresponded with the Latin participle in *ns*; and as the root of that ended in *ant* or *ent*, so the root of the Anglo-Saxon participle ended in *and* or *end*; in the German and the Dutch of the present day it ends in *end*. This participial form was never used as a noun. Beside these participles, there were in the Anglo-Saxon verbal nouns ending in *ing* formed regularly upon the verb-roots, just as now there are in the German verbal nouns in *ung*, and in the Dutch similar nouns in *ing*. This verbal noun was purely a noun: it was never limited by an objective element (as our grammarians say, it never governed a case); nor could it be modified by an adverb. It was not exactly analogous to our verbal in *ing* after a preposition, for that may have an objective element depending upon it.

As the Anglo-Saxon changed to English, these two forms, the adjective participle in *and* or *end* and the substantive verbal in *ing*, under the influence of causes not known, became one in form: the participle lost its proper termination, and took the termination *ing*, which it still retains; and the verbal noun retained its termination unchanged. This change in form at the same time that the language was subjected to the influence of the Norman-French and of the Latin, brought a great change into the syntactical relations of these two classes of words; and the change is still continuing, in spite of the opposition of grammarians. The participle continues unchanged in syntax; but the verbal noun has acquired the powers of the Latin gerund in addition to its own former characteristics. Originally, as a pure noun, it might be modified by adjective elements, among which we include the possessives, and might follow a preposition: it can now also be modified like a verb, by an objective element and an adverb, and may take the modifiers of a substantive and of a verb at one and the same time. Thus in one example quoted in my last article from HAWTHORNE, 'its ultimately forming a principedom', *forming* is limited like a noun by *its*, and like a verb by *ultimately* and by *principedom*. It does not seem to me strange that when the participle, which always could 'govern a case', became confounded in form with the verbal noun, the syntax of the two should become similar in that respect, and the verbal noun should acquire the relations of the parti-

ciple to subsequent terms, becoming, in fact, what Latin scholars were accustomed to, a gerund.

From the above history of the verbals in *ing* it appears that the common statement that the participle becomes a verbal noun is not true. The participle never became a verbal noun; the verbal noun was an old form in the language and supplanted the form of the participle, which while changing its form remains in character a participle still, having precisely the characteristics of the participle in the Latin and Greek languages, except change of form for case and number. On the other hand the verbal noun has not become a participle, for it has not become an adjective element; it has, however, become a gerund, and ought so to be called. It would relieve the matter of much complexity if in giving the forms made from the root of a verb the form in *ing* were given twice, with the names of gerund and participle; thus in the conjugation of the verb *love* we should have 'Gerund, Loving; Participle, Loving'. And these should be classed not as verbs or parts of the verb, but as separate parts of speech; the Verb being a word which makes the predication or expression of will in a sentence; the Gerund a word combining the qualities of Noun and Verb, and the Participle a word combining the qualities of Adjective and Verb. Although not verbs nor parts of the Verb, they should be given in connection with its conjugation, since they are regularly formed on the same root.

It should be said that the frequent use of the verbal in *ing* with modifiers of a verb and at the same time with modifiers peculiar to a substantive,—in short, its gerundial use, is, as urged by Brown in his condemnation of it, comparatively modern, except its use after a preposition. In reading Shakespeare's *Tempest* and *Hamlet* for examples, I found but one which can be confidently cited as an example of this sort. In *Hamlet* (Act IV, Scene 3), I find, "This sudden sending him away must seem deliberate pause": here *sending* like a noun is modified by *this* and *sudden*, and is subject of the predicate verb; like a verb, it is modified by the objective *him* and the adverbial term *away*. There may be a tendency at present to too frequent use of such constructions; but that should not be a reason with any grammarian for calling them solecisms and claiming that they are not good English. Mere theoretical objections are of no validity; and I believe that a true philosophy will have no difficulty in explaining all actual usages of the English language. There are reasons arising from individual taste for the choice of one form of speech or another; I find that there are forms of speech grammatically and philosophically unobjectionable that I nevertheless carefully abstain

from; but I could not justify myself in imposing my own rules of taste upon a pupil. A person familiar with Latin and Greek will be more likely to use participial and gerundial constructions than one whose culture is more especially English: at least, his familiarity with such constructions is greater. But a little history and a little philosophy will show us that they have now an established place in the language, and that considerations of rhetorical elegance and of clearness of expression must control the frequency of the use of them.

SILAS WESTMAN.

SOCIAL EVILS CONNECTED WITH THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

THE unexampled success of the free-school system of this country should not be suffered to blind our eyes to the evils which still mar its beauty and detract from its usefulness.

Prominent among these evils is the exposure of children to injurious social influences, as they are thrown promiscuously together, going to and from school and during the hours of relaxation at the school-building, without the immediate oversight of either teachers or parents. Many a child here receives his first lesson in immorality. Many a youth, whose character has matured into symmetry and beauty, amid the genial and healthful associations of home, and in the society of approved companions, here gradually yields to the seductive influence of unworthy associates, and becomes in turn qualified to be the corrupter of others. Children accustomed to the associations and the dialect of street life here mingle more or less freely with those who come from homes of purity and refinement.

Society is so constituted that it is impossible to preserve children of virtuous habits from all contact with those of a different character, without subjecting them to a most unnatural restraint; and children thus secluded are wholly unprepared for the contact with the world which awaits them in after life. It is not then desirable that children of different grades of character should be kept entirely apart. They may sit in the same room, and recite in the same classes, with manifest advantage to both. Nor would they suffer from mingling freely together during their hours of relaxation in the school-building and on the play-grounds, provided they were constantly under the eye of the teacher.

The genius of our institutions renders it important that different

classes of children should grow into a knowledge of each other's tastes and habits during the period of their education. And since it is both necessary and desirable that children should be thus brought together it is all-important that teachers and parents should understand the nature and extent of the dangers to which they are exposed, and devise the best means to throw every possible safeguard around them.

The teacher who regards his duties as less responsible while the children are assembled on the school-premises, out of school-hours, than while they are in their seats before him, has most unworthy views of his profession. If an improper and protracted intimacy exists between a pupil of correct habits and one whose example and influence are known to be injurious, the teacher has an important duty to discharge. If pupils indulge in the use of profane or vulgar language on the play-ground, it is the teacher's duty to know and correct it. Whatever other duties are left to suffer from neglect, these must not be. The teacher should ever be a welcome observer of the sports and exercises of the children, and his intercourse with them should be such as to inspire the feeling that he is among them as a friend and protector, and not as a spy. It is during these periods of relaxation that teachers are emphatically *in loco parentis*, to guard the morals and manners of the children committed to their care.

But there are also important duties connected with the mingling of pupils for which *parents* are directly responsible. The school-rooms are opened at a specified time before school, when all the teachers are expected to be present. If a parent allows his children to leave home so as to reach the school half an hour before the arrival of the teachers, he alone is responsible for the evil influences under which the children may fall, and which are often far more serious than he imagines. The dangers connected with allowing children to remain at noon are still greater, because the time is more protracted. No duty of parents can be plainer than that they should require their children to come directly home every noon, except in extreme cases, when the weather or distance is such that they are compelled to remain.

It is highly important that parents and teachers should confer freely together respecting the evils to which I have alluded, and coöperate in their efforts to eradicate them. I have presented the weakest points of the system, that they may hereafter be more securely guarded.

That the general standard of morals and manners in the public schools is already elevated, and the prevailing influence in a high de-

gree salutary,* is demonstrated by the statistics of ignorance and crime. It is attested in our own city, by the confidence of the community in the public schools. It is beautifully shown in the thousands of examples that are constantly before our eyes, of children in the schools who are in the very process of change from habits and associations that are comparatively low and unworthy to a good degree of conformity with the more elevating and refining associations that surround them.

It is in the hope that we may be able to raise this standard still higher that I have called attention to the subject. I can conceive of nothing upon which the philanthropist should look with greater satisfaction than upon a system of common schools through which active moral and refining influences are continually brought to bear upon ten thousand children, who diffuse in thousands of homes, in every street and lane of the city, and in every grade of society, the same healthful and elevating influences that surround them at school.

W. H. WELLS, City Superintendent, in Chicago School Reports, 1861.

A WORD FOR MOTHERS.

[THE following, which we find in *The Independent* of May 2, though written for mothers, will give instruction to many that are not mothers, and who, as teachers, are losing their labor because they have adopted an unpractical theory.—EDITOR.]

We can not help frequently noticing as we read the various articles in publications designed for the instruction and encouragement of mothers, how many of them — almost all, we might say — presuppose an abundance of leisure on the part of the mothers, and attentive considerate minds on the part of the children, who only need the fitting word to make them acquiesce cheerfully and obey with alacrity. One writer says, "Give your children a reason for what you require of them; do not require unquestioning obedience, as of a dumb animal." Now, while we are earnest advocates for mothers' conversing and reason-

* "The daily routine and discipline of the schools are directly and powerfully adapted to the formation and perpetuation of habits of order, quietude, neatness, punctuality, fidelity, industry, obedience, honor, truth, uprightness, deference to the wants, the rights, and conveniences of others, and to the assiduous culture of the highest and noblest principles of action and conduct in all the varied relations of life."—*New York Board of Education.*

ing with their children, and by all possible means cultivating the understanding, there is a time when and a place where to give children reasons; and there is not a mother who has had any experience with child-nature who does not know that while a good reason, pleasantly given, will have great effect in producing cheerful obedience with certain children, with certain other children of the same family it may be that the giving of a reason is the opening of an argument which may be prolonged indefinitely; for a child's illogical mind does not know when it is conquered in argument, but rambles off wide of the mark, only to return anew to the charge if his inclination shall so suggest. If the obedience is to be delayed till the child is convinced that the mother is right, or until her reasons are made satisfactory to him, it might as well be deferred altogether. Let obedience come first, unquestioning: then, if there is time or a suitable opportunity, let the reason for the requirement be given; but give some children a reason and you give them instantly a weapon with which to defend themselves or attack you.

"John," says Mrs. Gray, some morning just before school-time, "I want you to wear your old overcoat to-day."

"Why, mother?"

"Because I think it will rain before noon."

"Oh, mother, I do n't believe it's going to rain. I saw a bit of blue sky just now."

"The sky was very red this morning, and it is quite damp now, my son."

"Why, mother, only the other night you said it would be *pleasant* next day, because the sky was red; and now you say it will rain, because the sky is red," says John.

Now what is Mrs. Gray to do? It is already school-time; and is she to stop to explain the phenomena of red skies to her arguing boy, who would in the end be no better convinced than when she began? for the secret of his opposition lies not in his disbelief that it is going to rain, but in his aversion to wearing the old coat. Who can not see that it would have been better to have given no reason for requiring him to wear it, but simply and finally to have said,

"John, I want you to wear your old coat to-day."

Mrs. Holmes is very busy preparing the evening meal. Two of her children are studying the next day's lessons: she notices that one holds the book too near her eyes, while the other stoops in a most unhealthful position. She speaks to both for these faults, and both ask the reason why. She is too busy to stop to explain then, and if she did she knows very well that though her reasons given at length would

convince and satisfy one of the two girls and be remembered by her, the other would commence an argument which would be a mere waste of breath so far as any convincing is concerned; for if her eyes gave her no pain at the time, or she felt no ill effects from stooping, nothing would convince her that one was dangerous or the other ruinous.

Then, again, there are many mothers most sincerely desirous of governing their children judiciously, who have poor health, large families, few if any domestics; and all the care of soul, body, and clothing, comes upon the mother. Now, if such a mother is careful to keep her patience, to make no unnecessary requirements, and to lay no unnecessary restrictions upon her children, she may safely require her children to *obey*, giving no reasons at the time, and suffering not a word of argument; but afterward, and more at leisure, her reasons might be given; and the act being performed, there would be no chance for an argument on the child's part. Of all odious habits in a child, we know of nothing more disagreeable than the standing, hat in hand, in the middle of the room, arguing and trying to gainsay an elder who has made a proper requirement.

As a general rule, the brightest children are the most difficult to convince. They always see loopholes of escape: if it were a prison wall which was threatening them, they would pick through it with an imaginary nail; but still, if the mother educates her child herself, has leisure to reason with him, and large resources to draw from, we think she might well cultivate his reasoning powers in this way.—if he shows any inclination to listen attentively and conform after being convinced. Alas, for the little ones who are given over to nursery-maids and servants, ignorant and superstitious as they usually are! Far better off are the children of the busy mother who has to 'turn them off', and has no time to talk with them except on Sunday, if she only spends that Sunday leisure on heart and brain, in stead of the dress of her little flock.

Further, say some of the teachers, "You must make the children obey by love: you must appeal to their hearts and understandings." So say we; but suppose they will not obey then? You must not whip—that is barbarous: you must not shut them up—that would frighten them: you must not send them to bed without their suppers—that would injure their health. In short, there must be no 'coercion'. Now excepting the children in memoirs (who are all dead, or their memoirs would not have been written), where are the children who are to be made always obedient by appeals to their hearts and understandings? We have had quite a large share of experience with children, and love them dearly; but, alas for poor human nature! we

must admit that we have seen few children who would not rather have their own way than any body else's way, unless convincing arguments were occasionally brought to bear upon the senses; though in a majority of cases, we think the necessity of punishment, especially of corporal punishment, arises from early bad management. A well-managed child of ordinary proclivities for what is good *ought* to be controllable by reason and love as early as six or seven years of age; but if the first two or three years are lost, it is hard to undo the mischief.

However, no instructor or adviser can give rules which will work well in all cases. Every mother knows that for one child persuasion is best; for another, firm requirements; but for all, a mother's own personal interest and oversight are invaluable: so let her heart be brave to take up its appointed task, and fit her jewels, so far as possible, for their immortal setting.

H. W.

STATE CERTIFICATES.—SPECIAL CIRCULAR TO TEACHERS.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, }
Springfield, Ill., May, 1861.

THE 50th section of the school law, as amended by the late General Assembly, contains the following provision:

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction shall also be, and he is hereby, authorized to grant and issue State Certificates of eminent qualifications as Teachers, to such persons as may be found worthy to receive the same, upon due examination, by himself or others whom he shall appoint for that purpose, and who shall exhibit satisfactory evidence of practical experience and success in teaching. Said State Certificates shall supersede the necessity of any and all other examinations, and shall be of perpetual validity in every county and school district in the State; and the fee for each of such certificates shall be five dollars. But a State Certificate may be canceled by the State Superintendent, upon proof of immoral or unprofessional conduct.

By virtue of the authority thus conferred, I hereby appoint W. H. Wells, of Cook county; W. M. Baker, of Adams county; E. C. Hewett, of McLean county; and A. M. Gow, of Lee county, as a State Board of Examiners for the present year, to aid me in the examination of teachers who may apply for State Certificates under the above provision of law.

The first examination will be held at the Normal University, near

the city of Bloomington, beginning on Tuesday, July 2d, 1861, at ten o'clock A.M., and continuing from day to day, if necessary, until it is completed.

If the gentlemen named, or any of them, should not be present, others will be temporarily appointed to fill the vacancies in the Commission, so that there may be no delay or disappointment.

All who propose to apply for State Certificates are particularly requested to be present punctually at the hour, so that the sections may be promptly formed, and the examination proceed without delay. A single late arrival will materially derange the plan and delay the progress of the examination.

Qualifications.—Candidates will in no case be admitted to examination, or be deemed eligible thereto, until they have furnished the Examiners with conclusive evidence of irreproachable moral character, and of not less than three years of eminently successful experience in teaching, of which at least one year shall have been spent in this State.

It is an act of grave responsibility to license a person to be a teacher of youth, even for one term and in a single district. To make such license perpetual, and to extend the jurisdiction of such licentiate so as to embrace the whole State, enhances that responsibility to a degree of magnitude and solemnity which should awe the most inconsiderate to thoughtfulness and care. In determining, therefore, the question of worthiness for the high honor of a professional State Certificate, which is to be of perpetual validity, the consideration of MORAL FITNESS is first in importance: it rises above all questions of scholarship; it transcends every consideration of professional skill and success. It is an element which should ever be placed as a sentinel at the gateway of the profession, inexorably excluding all who can not endure its scrutiny. Without it, learning the most profound, scholarship the most varied, social qualities the most brilliant, manners the most polished and captivating, a mastery of the laws of mind and the philosophy of education the most subtle and comprehensive, leave a want in the essential equipment of the true teacher, which should peremptorily close the door to the most sacred calling, save one, into which a human being can enter.

Entertaining these views upon this point, I have placed it at the head of the catalogue of qualifications that will be demanded as the ground of claim to a State Certificate. To this point the inquiries of the Commission will first be directed, and until they are clearly satisfied upon this fundamental question, no applicant will be admitted to further examination.

Specific statements of what shall be included in and excluded by

the standard of moral fitness here insisted on can not, of course, be made; nor are such statements necessary. Equally impracticable and unnecessary would be the attempt to define the precise nature and amount of proof that shall be required to establish the fact of satisfactory moral excellence. Beside the ordinary testimonials, there are indices of nobleness, of loftiness of aim, of purity of life and thought and feeling, of true dignity, which, though subtle, can neither be disguised if existent, nor successfully feigned if wanting. They will crop out in the tone, the bearing, the manner, the action; they will be revealed in the prevailing type of thought, language, expression. By these and other tests the accomplished gentlemen named as the Commission will not fail to be guided to just and reliable conclusions, while their high character forbids the fear that they will testify to what they do not conscientiously believe to be true.

Next to moral excellence, the success of the applicant for a State Certificate will be conditioned upon the proof afforded of suitable experience and eminent ability in actual service. These must be established beyond peradventure. The professional diploma of the State is intended to be, and so far as lies in the power of this department it shall be, a mark of honor worth the winning; and hence it can and should be bestowed only upon teachers of *distinguished* merit—only upon those who have already achieved a high reputation, and settled the question of fitness, competency, and executive ability, by the unerring test of eminent success in the school-room itself. It was for this end, precisely, that the Legislature authorized the issue of a State diploma, as a recognition of professional excellence and success already attained, and thus to incite others to aim to qualify themselves for a like distinction. Hence there may be high character and scholarship, but without this *professional* qualification the claim to the badge of distinction conferred by the State is wholly inadmissible. It is thought that a term of three years' actual service is not too long to determine the question of practical skill and ability; it is no longer than the probation required in all our best schools of professional training. It is meet, also, that not less than one year shall have been spent in the schools of this State, that our system of public instruction, the habits of our people, and the customs and usages of the country, may be more perfectly understood. While, therefore, the Board of Examiners will recognize those candidates who bear satisfactory credentials of experience and success, and recommend them as worthy to receive the mark of the State's approbation, they will inflexibly refuse all whose position in these respects is in the least equivocal. It must be known from the first, and demonstrated to the last, that a State Certificate is awarded only to distinguished professional merit.

It is also *recommended* that each candidate present an original essay, of not less than three nor more than ten pages, upon some *practical* theme relating to the organization, government, discipline, classification or instruction of the school, or upon the teaching of some particular subject or science. The aid which such papers would afford to the Committee, in estimating the candidate's scholarship, character, modes of thought and expression, etc., will readily be perceived. So, also, penmanship, spelling, punctuation, syntax, etc., could be more easily and rapidly investigated than in any other way, while the theme itself, if a practical one (and no other would be appropriate), would furnish reliable means of judging the author's knowledge upon the subject treated of.

The examination in all the branches required by the school laws of the State will be THOROUGH AND SEARCHING. This statement must be taken in its most literal and rigid sense, and will answer in stead of an elaborate description of the course that will be pursued with each separate branch. A complete mastery of the subjects enumerated in the act, few as they are, involves more, and is far more rarely possessed, than is generally supposed. This fact will appear in the course of the examination.

It will be the aim throughout to make the examination philosophical, not technical; to so frame the questions as to elicit the applicant's knowledge of governing principles, rather than unimportant details; to test his acquaintance with the general truths, the broad outlines of a subject, rather than isolated facts and barren statistics. Thus, in Geography, for example: the relation of the earth to the solar system; the causes of day and night, and of the seasons; the elements of mathematical and physical geography; a clear general view of the geography of the whole world, and an accurate knowledge of that of the United States, will be deemed of more importance than the population of some obscure town in South America or the length of a tenth-class river in Africa. In History, a clear and intelligent statement of the causes which led to the war of 1812 will be infinitely more satisfactory than the precise number of the killed and wounded at the battle of New Orleans. In Arithmetic, a lucid explanation of the principles of decimals, or a ready and accurate analysis and demonstration of the rules for taking the second and third roots of numbers, would establish a claim to scholarship in that science which the failure to answer some mere technical question, or a chance error in the performance of a given example, could not seriously impair. These instances will serve to indicate the general character of the examination, and what is meant by the investigation of principles in stead of

details. Not that technical knowledge and accuracy of detail are unimportant, by any means, but simply that a general knowledge of causes and principles and laws is *more* important. Candidates may be assured that they will not be harrassed and quizzed and abused by mere technicalities or irrelevant trifles, while in all essential knowledge they will be held to a strict accountability.

But no examination in the form of question and answer, however comprehensive in scope or sound and just in character, can do much in settling the question of the candidate's *aptness to teach*; of his practical skill; his resources of explanation, illustration, etc. As a means, therefore, of informing the committee upon these points, which are of paramount importance, each candidate will be expected to exhibit, as far as possible, with the aid of the blackboard, etc., his own peculiar methods of teaching, explaining and illustrating the various branches required by law. These exercises will constitute the *standard of qualification* in the department of the examination to which they relate; and the ability displayed in them will, more than any thing else, determine the rank of each candidate in the essential qualities of a successful teacher. It is even more important to know *how* a man can teach than *what* he can teach.

In addition to the branches specified in the Act, applicants for State Certificates will be examined in the elements of Geometry; in the simple rules of Algebra, including quadratic equations; and in the Principles of Teaching, both as a science and art, viewed with special reference to the proper organization and management of schools, and the improved methods of teaching. It is held that a knowledge of Algebra, through quadratics at least, is invaluable, if not indispensable, in the elucidation of the higher rules of arithmetic; and that Geometry is so related to the synthetic process of reasoning, and to future attainments in science, that the *elements*, at least should be understood by the professional teacher: while a general knowledge of the Science of Teaching, and its approved methods, is the criterion of professional excellence.

Three books of Euclid (any approved edition) will meet any requirement that will be made in Geometry.

The importance of *good reading* and *correct spelling* will justify a special remark. No teacher is worthy of the highest certificate known to the law who can not, at sight, read with *ease, intelligence*, and *expression*, selections of different styles, both in prose and verse, and who is not familiar with the general principles of reading and pronunciation; or who can not spell with readiness any common word of the language, and apply the established rules of English orthography.

Proficiency in the subjects now enumerated will be the lowest stand-

ard of qualification, and will be *essential*, in all cases, to entitle an applicant to the State Certificate.

But it is not proposed to confine the examination to these limits. Candidates may, at their option, be examined in any or all of the studies embraced in the best High-School course, including the Latin, Greek, and Modern languages. Teachers are especially recommended to acquaint themselves with the elements of vegetable and animal Physiology, History, Music, Astronomy, Chemistry, Geology, and Mental and Moral Science; for upon all of these, and many more, the teacher may draw directly, for purposes of explanation and illustration, even in the subordinate grades of the profession. The diploma will show *upon its face* the standing of the holder in each branch of the essential course, and, also, in each additional study upon which he is examined; for the insertion of which ample space will be reserved, so that School Directors, committees, and the community, may see at a glance what branches the holder of the certificate can teach, and his grade of scholarship in each of them.

The examination will be chiefly written—the questions having been previously printed upon slips, convenient for distribution and use. But free use will also be made of the oral method, both interrogative and suggestive. Full details of the plan and order of examination will be made known through the Commission on the first day. The fees, authorized by law, will be used to pay for engraving and printing diplomas, for books and stationery, and the traveling expenses of the Board of Examiners.

It will be esteemed as a favor if all who propose to apply for State Certificates at the time and place mentioned herein will apprise me of such intention at the earliest day (name and address in full), so that arrangements may be made for their entertainment and accommodation at Bloomington. No other examination will be held during the present school year.

The law authorizing the issue of life certificates, valid throughout the State, is the first step, fellow teachers, toward the public recognition of ours as a distinct Profession. Let us be incited to renewed efforts to prove ourselves worthy of this token of public regard: let us so live, and act, and labor, as to win the esteem of the good, and compel the respect of all.

There are not a few teachers, both men and women, now in Illinois, who, tried by every test proposed herein, would be found worthy to receive the State Certificate authorized by law. To all such I would say, I shall be happy to meet you at Bloomington on the second day of July next.

Cordially yours,

NEWTON BATEMAN, Sup't Public Instruction.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

THE WAR.—Since we last wrote lines for our journal a great change has come upon the nation. The fact of a civil war, existing ever since South Carolina began her seizure of the property of the national government, became a universally recognized fact ere the middle of April; and now all accept it as we accept pestilence or famine; as some thing to be feared and avoided as long as possible, but, when inevitable, to be met bravely and borne patiently, that we may receive even from the hands of God's dark angels blessings which our offenses against his laws have caused to come in the dread form of punishments.

We are not now to speak of this fact in its general aspects, nor even in all of its relations to the cause for which specially we stand. It is for the time a blow, a heavy blow, upon all present peaceful interests; education must suffer with all things else. An early effect is evident in the departure of young men from our colleges and academies, who have gone with their lives in their hands to serve their country: some institutions are almost broken up. The newspapers report that one hundred enlisted at once at Oberlin College under the lead of one of their tutors as captain. President Lorin Andrews of Kenyon College has raised a company of volunteers. Our Normal Schools are decimated of their young men. From the Illinois Normal School Mr. Jos. G. Howell, teacher of the Model School, and four of the pupils in the Normal School itself, volunteered on the first call, and are now in Cairo: the young men who remained are organized as a rifle company, and substitute military drill for their gymnastics and sports. If the demand for men gives them opportunity, they will go to the war.

Schools will soon suffer in another way than by losing male teachers and elder pupils. War is costly, and must be paid for by increase of taxes. The people will reduce the school-tax to its lowest figure while the nation is struggling for existence. School libraries, apparatus, improvements in buildings, new furniture, and the like, will be postponed, often indefinitely. Teachers must do the best they can under new circumstances. If it is hard for us of the free North, where free education is a cherished interest, let us pity our unfortunate brethren at the South, where education has had to struggle against greater difficulties and where the evil will fall still heavier. The legislature of Missouri has already appropriated the school fund to military purposes. As education suffers so does literature and learning. The book-trade feels the shock. Magazines and periodicals, including teachers' journals, will have diminished revenues.

Shall we speak further of the effect of war-excitement upon the minds of the young who remain in the schools? Of its effect in withdrawing public attention and sympathy from the home interest of education by centering it upon the movements and issues of the campaign? We are setting forth the evils that we as educationists are to meet only that we may be the better prepared to meet them, and that they may not come upon us unforeseen.

We believe that the war is a great good in some points of view, and do not la-

ment it, but only the dread necessity for it. Let us learn to hate the spirit of evil that has created it. Slavery, debasement of politics, disloyalty, indifference to the public welfare in a thousand forms,—these are the true roots of the war and the cause of our evils: let us learn to hate them with a righteous hatred, and to teach our youth to hate them too. Let us work and pray that the war be short, even for the rebels' sake.

SCANTY.—The war excitement has occupied the minds of all men for weeks with an all-absorbing interest. We have felt it powerfully ourselves, feeling very little disposed to write, and indeed from ill-health being hardly able to summon the requisite energy. Our correspondents have almost all forgotten us, and the *Teacher* this month presents less than our usual amount of original matter and of editorial labor.

CHANGE OF SUPERINTENDENCY.—When Gov. Morgan of New York lately had occasion for a new Superintendent of the Bank Department, he seized upon the State School Superintendent, H. H. Van Dyke, and transferred him to the vacant place. A good teacher (and surely Mr. Van Dyke must in his day have been such) is good for almost any office.

THE DICTIONARY PRIZE ESSAY, the first article in this number of the *Teacher*, in from the pen of Mr. Venable, of the South-Western Normal School, Lebanon, Ohio. We wish he had had more competition from the teachers of our own State; though we do not envy him his prize. His essay is a good one, and we wish it may aid in impressing the value of the Dictionary upon the minds of many who have not thought of it.

CHICAGO REPORTS.—We are indebted to Mr. Wells and also to another friend for copies of the Chicago School Reports for the past year; an extract is given in our pages from the pamphlet. It requires of us a more careful reading than we have yet been able to give it.

DR. LEWIS'S INSTITUTE.—A new thing—if not under the sun, at least new in our country—is to be opened in Boston on the fourth day of July next. We can say that it is an Institute for Physical Education; and Dr. Lewis's advertisement will tell you more of it. Observe too what is advertised respecting his new journal, which we peruse monthly with great interest: only 50 cents a year to clubs of ten. We earnestly commend the subject generally, Dr. Lewis's Journal and Institute particularly, to teachers, parents, young men, young women, school officers, and to every body but old-fogies. Send for a circular and a copy of the Journal.

It is reported that wine has been discovered in the ruins of Pompeii. This city was destroyed in the year 79 of the Christian era, and the wine may be supposed to be old enough to be good if age will help it. We do not propose to invest in the article if our druggists advertise 'Fresh old wine just dug out of Pompeii'.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E .

REMARKS ON THE AMENDMENTS TO THE SCHOOL LAW.—Provision is made by the amendatory act adopted Feb. 22, 1861, for submitting all local questions first to the School Commissioner of the interested county, after which appeal can be taken to the Superintendent. This will relieve the State Department of much correspondence relative to matters better understood by Commissioners on the

ground than by the Superintendent at a distance, and of comparatively little moment.

The time of electing directors is hereafter to be the first Monday of August, and provision is made for more complete records than are now kept.

Graded certificates may be issued by School Commissioners. First Grade good for two years in the county; 2d Grade good for one year in the county; 3d Grade good for six months in a single district.

But Illinois has taken an advance step at last in the matter of certificates. The State Superintendent may issue PERPETUAL CERTIFICATES to those whom he finds worthy, as teachers of eminent qualifications. We hail this as a great gain. While we have a tried teacher as Superintendent the present act will place teachers on a respectable professional basis, receiving their professional Diplomas from the official leader of their own profession. We trust before the Superintendency is again plunged into the mire of politics, some step will secure an examining board of teachers that a temporary degrading of the Superintendency can not neutralize.

The School Commissioners may draw pay for visiting schools, and counties are authorized to aid Institutes. We think the Legislature must have estimated the Commissioners very highly, as they are to draw TWO DOLLARS A DAY for one hundred days or less, which will about pay horse-hire with other incidental expenses for those who need to be at expense in traveling. Even if all is kept, no man whose services are worth \$400 per year can afford to do much for the office except for the good of the cause. We want our BEST men for Commissioners, not our cheapest. GOOD SUPERVISION is the FIRST NEED of our whole educational system, institutes, local schools, and all. We do not feel very enthusiastic over amendments which fail to secure this essential to general improvement. B.

It is really refreshing, when over 1000 of the school-houses of the State are utterly unfit for use, to find a house that may be commended as a first-class house. Now we do not mean to speak of a perfect model, but of a house which ranks among the best country school-houses in Illinois. Some four miles S.E. of Dixon, Lee Co., is a district school-house built of brick, with high walls, ceiled up some four feet, blackboards on two sides of the room, soon to be improved and increased, —well supplied with maps and reference books, seated with improved furniture, and calculated to accommodate sixty to eighty pupils. Quite a permanent school has been kept up in the district, and a strong disposition exists to keep the same teacher as long as possible. The house is well inclosed, and we were informed that in summer the children kept their little flower-garden in commendable order. The district is, as would be expected, a thriving one. We have addressed many audiences, but have not received more faithful attention and respectful treatment from any other audience than we had in addressing the people of the above district one evening recently. In the villages and towns we have been so often annoyed by the discourteous whispering of older ones or restless uneasiness of the little ones, that the entire absence of disturbing elements was the more marked and grateful. The Directors of that District, authorized by the people, have built a school-house which is a great and good educating influence of itself. The teachers have been well sustained by the directors, and their work makes its mark. A large number of maps were on the wall, drawn by pupils.

We wish every district of equal wealth in the State was as well provided for. Good schools increase the value of property, and such seems to be one idea of the people in the district we speak of. B.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

DEWITT CO. INSTITUTE was held at Clinton, April 2d, 3d, and 4th. The attendance was not large, but those who came were much interested in the work of the occasion, and those of the citizens who found their way to that rarely-visited building — the school-house — seemed to enjoy it. We have no record of the proceedings, and write from our own observation and recollection, having been present from the evening of the first day until near the close of the sessions. The exercises were mainly of the usual character, Dr. Willard acting as conductor after his arrival. Lectures were given to popular audiences by Dr. Willard on the themes 'What is a Practical Education?' and, in continuation of the same line of thought, 'The Course of Study in our Schools — as it is, and as it should be'; also by Mr. O. Adams on 'What our schools need'.

During the Institute an exhibition was had by Miss Carley, of her Primary School and its methods of instruction, an agreeable improvement upon the old humdrum style, and which she labors to perfect under great disadvantages with praiseworthy success. The subjects of Object Lessons and of Phonetic Analysis were treated in familiar lectures. Dr. Willard was requested to give his views on the subject of teaching Grammar to children: the readers of the *Teacher* will hardly need to be told that he condemned and opposed any such teaching. He proceeded to show how children may in fact be taught to avoid and correct errors in the use of language without being taught any scheme of analysis, parsing, etymology, or syntax, and without the use of grammatical terms. While we were there, exercises were conducted by Messrs. McCorkle, Wakefield, Allyn, and Atkins, and after we left some resolutions were passed, no copy of which has reached us. We found some of the teachers discouraged and almost hopeless in view of the popular apathy respecting education; we believe they are encouraged by their pleasant gathering, and go to work with renewed hopefulness.

HANCOCK CO. TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION met, pursuant to advertisement, Monday, April 8th, and continued in session until Thursday the 11th. On account of the inclement state of the weather, and impracticability of traveling the roads, the attendance was not as large as expected; but, notwithstanding, the meeting was felt to be profitable to those participating, and interesting to the large concourse of citizens who constantly crowded the hall. The interest manifested shows the increasing desire of the friends of education for its success. The various branches of common-school education were elaborately discussed; and those appointed to conduct the exercises performed their duty with honor to themselves as teachers, and profit to the members of the Association. During the session a multiplicity of questions in relation to school-government were discussed, and recommended to the consideration of teachers and those connected with the schools of the county. The Committee on Resolutions submitted the following, which were adopted:

Resolved, 1st. That school directors adopt a uniform series of text-books to be exclusively used in the schools under their supervision.

2d. That, so far as circumstances will permit, the same text-books should be used in all district schools in the county.

3d. That we recommend the following books to directors for examination and adoption: Sanders's New Speller and Definer, Willson's Readers, Ray's Arithmetics, Willson's History of the United States, Pinneo's Grammars, and Cornell's Geographies.

4th. That we recommend all persons interested in educational matters to take the *Illinois Teacher*, and the members of this Association to become contributors to its pages.

5th. That we tender those citizens of Carthage who have entertained the members of the Association free of charge, our thanks for their kindness and hospitality.

6th. That the next meeting of the Association be held at LaHarpe, commencing the last Monday in August next.

7th. That these resolutions be published in the *Illinois Teacher* and the local papers of the county.

Adjourned to meet at LaHarpe, the last Monday in August, 1861.

J. M. MCNELL, Secretary.

GEO. W. BATCHELDER, President.

HENDERSON CO. INSTITUTE met at Leondale Seminary, Oquawka, March 27th, and remained in session three days. We see nothing special in the subjects or treatment of the drill exercises. The subjects of the Addresses and Essays, and of Mr. Birdsall's Poem, do not appear in the report furnished us. Two discussions are reported: one on the qualification and compensation of teachers; the other on a resolution 'that moral suasion for the government of schools is preferable to corporal punishment'. We hardly see how there could be room for a negative on the question as stated, unless the affirmative claimed that corporal punishment should never be used. After this discussion came the report of the committee appointed at the last session for the purpose of reporting a suitable series of books to be adopted throughout the county. The committee reported the following list: Webster's Speller, McGuffey's Primer and Reader, Ray's Arithmetic, Clark's Grammar, Cornell's Geography, Willson's History, Stoddard's Mental Arithmetic: which report, after considerable debate and expression of preferences for other works, was adopted throughout, with the exception of the Speller. By a vote Sanders's Speller was selected in preference to Webster's.

Beside resolutions of thanks to the lady and gentlemen who had presented Essays and Addresses and to the citizens for their hospitality, the following were adopted:

Resolved, 1st. That any teacher allowing any ordinary circumstance to prevent his or her attendance at the meetings of the Teachers' Association, is unworthy to occupy a place in the profession, and should not be employed to teach a common school.

2d. That when a teacher makes application for a certificate, the first question asked him or her should be, 'Are you a member of a Teachers' Association? Do you attend and take part in the exercises of the same? Do you intend to make teaching your profession? And that a negative answer to such interrogations should disqualify such applicant in the minds of school directors.

3d. That school directors, wishing to employ teachers, would find it greatly to the advantage of their schools to attend the Teachers' Association and witness the exercises and the examination of teachers before the County School Commissioner.

4th. That, as we believe the cause of education would be greatly advanced by the more general circulation of an educational monthly, we recommend the *Illinois Teacher* to every teacher and friend of education.

On the second resolution we remark that it is hardly, if at all, less important that a teacher should take some educational periodical.

The Association adjourned to meet at Greenville on the 28th of August.

We are indebted to Mr. G. W. Birdsall for a report of the proceedings.

HENRY COUNTY.—We notice by the *Henry County Dial* that the energetic School Commissioner of that county, Mr. Samuel G. Wright, makes new arrangements for the examination of teachers, regarding the recent change in the provisions of our school-law as occasion for an attempt to raise the standard of teachership. He revokes all previous authorizations to examiners, and appoints Messrs. G. G. Alvord, of Geneseo, and Revs. J. D. Baker, of Cambridge, and H. B. Foskett, of Kewanee, as examiners hereafter.

KNOX CO. INSTITUTE was held at Knoxville, April 2d-5th. From the newspaper report of it we get the following sketch: Exercises were had in Penmanship, Orthography, Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History, and Reading. Mrs. Grose, of Galesburg, conducted the Exercise in Penmanship, urging a more rigid adherence to principles in the formation of letters. The exercise reported as an Orthography Exercise seems to have been in fact one in Orthoëpy, as the matter of pronunciation was principally urged. On Wednesday evening interesting and amusing conversation and debates arose on the wants of the school-room. Some thought better houses and furniture would be profitable to the cause of education; others wanted charts, maps, apparatus, etc., for better illustrating what they wished to teach; others wished they might be assured of the appreciation, sympathy, and coöperation of their own patrons.

On Object-Lessons, Mr. Knapp remarked that he knew of no better way to arouse the mind of a scholar than to bring to his view some interesting object; and when the spirit's inquiry was thoroughly aroused, the most difficult part of imparting knowledge was accomplished. Scholars should be taught to be close observers of every thing that falls within their notice. It is the province of object-lessons with a skillful teacher to form a habit in scholars of close observation.

Praise should be given to the one that will scrutinize an object the closest and tell you the most about it. In giving instruction too much of the stuffing process is used, rather than let the scholar receive it in a proper way. A teacher remarked there were many teachers but few educators.

The subject of Grammar received attention at three different times, three several teachers conducting exercises. A social gathering was had on Thursday evening at Ewing University. Reading for prizes occurred on Friday afternoon. Ten gentlemen appeared first as competitors for one prize, all remaining in a separate room but the one reading, so that one should not be influenced by the other reading. After all had read, and the audience voted on their merits, Mr. N. A. Jones, of Altona, was the fortunate one; Mr. J. H. Knapp, of Galesburg, received the next highest number of votes. Seven ladies next appeared as competitors: after balloting, Miss Josephine Bassett, of Galesburg, having received the highest number, was declared entitled to the prize; Miss Helena Carr, of Knoxville, having received the next highest. Next came about six ladies, and as many gentlemen (mostly those who had not read before), to read for the third prize: Miss Helena Carr, of Knoxville, was declared entitled to it; Mr. Livingston, of Galesburg, receiving the next highest number of votes. The prizes were octavo copies of Shakspeare, beautifully bound in Turkey morocco.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we recommend to teachers and directors the introduction of Physical Geography as a study in the public schools of our county.

Resolved, That we recommend the reading of short essays before our Institutes in future.

Resolutions of thanks to citizens and others for hospitality, etc., were passed. The Secretary, Mr. J. H. Knapp, says of the meeting: "This session of the Institute was one of more than usual interest and profit; a goodly number of teachers assembled *the first day*, and but few had *urgent business* or inclination to cause their absence any part of the time."

LEE CO. TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.—The regular spring session of the Lee County Teachers' Association was held at Sublette, commencing on Monday the 22d, and closing on the Friday following. In compliance with a request of the Annual Institute, held last fall, at Dixon, the Board of Supervisors of our county granted an appropriation of \$100 for the purposes of the Institute during the year, on the conditions that "no part of it should be used as a compensation for the services of any one living in the county," and that "the Institute should continue in session at least five days." Both these conditions were complied with.

The Institute was placed under the charge of Mr. Wm. H. Haskell, of Canton, Fulton county, Ill., who, by his tact and energy, infused a life and enthusiasm into the Institute hitherto unknown, making it highly interesting and efficient. Mr. Haskell was assisted in music and the various other exercises by members of the Institute.

Lectures were delivered during the evening sessions by Mr. Thomas, of Dixon, Mr. Haskell, Rev. Mr. Morrison, of Sublette, and Mr. Read, of Lee Centre, and during the day sessions by Mr. Gardener and Mr. Phillips. All the addresses were on educational topics. The citizens of Sublette manifested their hospitality and interest in education by making the teachers their guests during the session of the Institute. Notwithstanding the intense war excitement of the week, there were present ninety-one teachers—the largest Institute, perhaps, ever held in the county.

As but one-half only of the appropriation was used, it is confidently hoped that the success already achieved and the remainder of the appropriation will enable us, if possible, to have a still more efficient Institute in the fall. G.

MACON CO. INSTITUTE met at Decatur April 2, Tuesday, and continued in session until Friday evening. The exercises were of the usual character and on the usual subjects, and were conducted by eight or ten different teachers, including Prof. Turner and Commissioner Leal from abroad: the others were home-teachers. Lectures were delivered by C. B. Reed on 'Meteorology'; by Prof. J. B. Turner on 'Thought, Taste, and Will, as Elements of Education'; by John Davis on the theme 'Knowledge is Power'; and by Hon. R. J. Oglesby on his Travels in the Holy

Land. There were discussions on various subjects; among them was the following resolution, on which no final action was had:

Resolved, That the subject of Grammar, as commonly presented in our text-books, is a humbug.

We think it can hardly be more of a humbug than some 'method of presenting the [same] subject to small children', which was brought forward during the session. Small children have no more business with grammar than they have with logarithms, if, as we understand, some technical form of analysis or synthesis of sentences and classification of words is meant. We do not refer to the particular method there offered as specially a humbug, but mean to say that all methods are humbugs that come within our definition above.

Mr. Leal gave an 'Object Lesson'.

The following resolution was discussed and, as we understand the record, adopted:

Resolved, That McGuffey's Fifth Reader, and books of that class, should be abolished from our common schools.

We suppose the objection against them is that reading of that grade is too difficult for a 'common school'. Adams's *School-Registers* were heartily commended and recommended for all schools. Beside a resolution of thanks to Messrs. Turner, Leal, and Oglesby, to the strangers, and to hospitable citizens, a resolution commending the *Illinois Teacher* was adopted, and also the following:

Resolved, That we have faith in Teachers' Institutes as an efficient means of awakening and preserving an interest among both teachers and patrons of schools in the cause of common-school education.

We are indebted to the Secretary, Mr. E. A. Gastman, for a copy of the proceedings, from which we make the above sketch.

MARION CO. INSTITUTE commenced its second semi-annual session Wednesday, April 3d. An 'exercise' in Grammar, conducted by T. D. Clark, was first in order, the regular programme being waived. Mr. Clark, making this 'exercise' a recitation, proceeded to give the principles and definitions of Grammar in a concise and perspicuous manner, adding his method of teaching it, which differed materially from the old routine of 'Murray & Co.'

Spelling being considered the branch least successfully taught, the question was asked the teachers "How do you, and how WOULD you—circumstances favoring—teach *spelling*?" Nearly every teacher present responded to this briefly though pertinently—showing, many of them, in their responses, that the old Dilworth method is yet extant in many localities, in spite of school journals, 'Teachers' Institutes', and all. And permit me here to remark, our educational periodicals, lecturers, writers, and 'Teachers' Institutes', are far ahead of the people, the schools, and the teachers (many of them) themselves; and so far ahead that, notwithstanding the energetic and persevering efforts of the former, the beneficial effects are unfelt by the latter, hence the mark aimed at is missed, if not wholly, in a great measure. There is a wide gulf between the parties yet, which the hands of educationists must *bridge* and enable those in rear to come to the front ranks.

An essay was then read by J. B. Gilwee, representative at large from this district to the Normal, upon *The Teacher's Duty*, in which, among other things, he claimed that teachers should build fires. From this, without begging or asking leave, I boldly *dissent*. Not that I would blink any responsibility; on the contrary, I love every school-room duty: but I do hold it to be as necessary for children to learn to keep things about them nice, tidy and in order, as to learn to compute numbers; and how shall they learn this without commencing to do it, under the supervision, if need be, of the teacher?

Second day. An 'exercise' in Penmanship, conducted by C. E. Baker, elicited some interest. A diagram giving an analysis of the art, showing its cognate branches and an illustration of the principles of the Spencerian system, was finely drawn. He spoke of its origin, time of highest development, history, etc. He claimed God was the first writing-master, Mt. Sinai the first writing-school, and

Moses the first pupil. Mr. Dwyer offered some remarks upon writing, following this, claiming, and proving we may say, that there are but two principles in all writing, viz: the circle or oval and the straight inclined mark.

Jno. Hull conducted Mental Arithmetic upon the Normal method.

An 'exercise' in each of the remaining branches, including Physical Geography, was conducted by different teachers during the session. Also a lecture upon Physiology, by W. H. Corrington. A discussion upon 'School Government' occupied the evening session—Mr. B. G. Roots, from Tamaroa, having arrived, participating.

Third day—morning session. A 'talk' was listened to from B. G. Roots, in which his peculiar, though I may say excellent, method of opening and conducting a school was presented. A lecture upon Vocal Music, accompanied with singing, by S. W. Leonard, enlivened the exercises of the afternoon; the lecturer believing that if men were not able to sing in this world they would not be in the next.

Essays were read by A. L. Mills, Miss M. J. Scott, and Miss A. C. Kendall, respectively, upon the subjects: The True Teacher, Moral Training, and We're a Band of Teachers.

Our local 'presses' have volunteered to '*our side*' in the battle between progress and foggism, and propose to carry the cannon if we will furnish the powder, load and fire. Accordingly, a senior and junior Editor, for each county paper, were chosen by the Institute; Jno. Hull and A. L. Mills, seniors, and Mrs. M. P. Lemon and S. W. Leonard, juniors.

Our Institute is now fully established and on the best of premises—a good 'constitution' and the sense of the people. And although our last session was not as enthusiastic as some, it was practical and beneficial. A social *réunion* took place among the teachers, and new strength was felt by all when they went away.

Adjourned, to meet at the call of the Executive Committee.

A. L. MILLS, Secretary.

SPARTA.—A friend in Sparta writes that an effort is there made, in the face of considerable opposition, to establish graded schools for that town. No man who understands what a graded school is can oppose it, unless he is willing to oppose all teaching by classes: it is only an extension of the plan of teaching by classes, by which the powers of the teacher are economized, and the pupils are brought under the same influences and incitements which always affect men working together for any object.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

COMPENDIUM OF CLASSICAL LITERATURE. By Charles Dexter Cleveland, former Professor in Dickinson College and in the New York University. Philadelphia: E. C. & J. Biddle & Co. 12mo. pp. 622.

This book, Prof. Cleveland informs us, completes his intended series of compendiums of Ancient and Modern Literature. It is a volume of similar size to the Compendiums of English and American Literature, and is made on the same general plan: here of course translations of select passages are given from the best Greek and Roman writers, with an account of their lives and works: there are also critical notes, directing the student to the best editions of the originals, and to the best translations.

We esteem very highly Prof. Cleveland's previous literary compendiums, and value this volume less than those only as we must value foreign literature less than our own. This work should have a place in our high schools, academics,

and advanced schools, for the use of all those who are not to pursue collegiate studies: it is important to all who wish to read our best English authors with pleasure that they should know something of the classical literature of Greece and Rome; and the well-chosen passages and excellent translations of this volume afford the best means of obtaining such knowledge without access to many books. To condense much information into small space was Prof. Cleveland's purpose, and he has admirably effected it.

We have in many instances compared the translations with the originals, that we might assure ourselves of their fidelity; and we have read many pages to learn whether the vice of translation, a too literal transfer to English words with foreign constructions, disfigured the pages: in both respects we are abundantly satisfied. We cordially commend the Compendium to teachers and to families. Let it not be supposed because a book has special value to teachers and to schools that therefore it has not equal value for the household. The four Compendiums of Literature of which this book is one should go into our school libraries and into thousands of household libraries, in the families where every dollar spent for a book should give the most economical investment.

The exterior of the book is attractive, and the printing and paper are excellent. The indexes and tables are not to be overlooked in the list of excellences. Too many authors issue books without these indispensable adjuncts: they might as well dress themselves for company without shoes as make books that can be indexed without indexes.

An advertisement of this book, with recommendations from several scholars, may be found in our last number.

SLATE MAP-DRAWING CARDS. Sixteen Maps. \$1.50. Published by Charles Scribner, New York.

These Slate-Cards are made by putting a slate-composition upon firm paper, having upon them permanently delineated river-lines and coast-lines: on each card is upon one side the coast-line of the country to be mapped and on the other side the river-lines of the same; thus upon one side the pupil can put in the rivers, and upon the other side he can draw the coast-line. A slate-pencil or a chalk crayon may be used with them, and a damp sponge removes the marks. The publisher states that each map can be used 500 times. Colored crayons may be used with them for further delineations than mere coast-line or river-line maps. The plan seems to us an excellent one, and we think that practical use of the cards will show them to be a valuable addition to the appliances of the school-room.

SANDERS'S SERIES OF READERS.

Our readers will notice new advertisements of these much-used and much-improved Readers, from which they will learn that they have recently been revised and improved and newly illustrated. We have not seen the new editions, but have always liked the old since we first made acquaintance with them, and do not doubt that these are better still. See the advertisement, and recommendations there given.

MERRY'S MUSEUM, April and May.

The office of this popular juvenile magazine was destroyed by fire March 29th, with the loss to its owners of 3000 volumes of back years of the Museum, 1000 wood-cuts, and manuscripts, and valuable papers and property. Nevertheless, the April number was issued within a week of the time, and the May number at the usual time. Let its friends—and they should be many—remember it now. Published by J. N. Stearns & Co., New York; \$1.00 a year.

ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

JUNE, 1861.

NUMBER 6.

A SOLUTION QUESTION, AND ANSWER THERETO.

[THE following articles appeared in the *Wisconsin Journal of Education*: the first as a 'Question in Natural Philosophy', in the March number of this year, and the other under the title 'Diogenes gives a Solution to a Solution Question', in the May number. We copy the two, informing the readers of the *Teacher* that DIOGENES has frequently written for the *Teacher*, being the same who has noticed philosophical questions with signature of U.U., and who noticed this same error in an article in the fifth volume of the *Teacher* in another shape.]

A QUESTION IN NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.—Why can we take a certain quantity of pure water, and after dissolving in it as much salt as it will hold in solution, put in a quantity of sugar, and then have only the same bulk we had before putting in the salt and sugar?

I am aware that we have a theory that is supposed to answer this question, viz: That the particles of water are globular, and that the particles of salt are smaller than the particles of water; therefore the particles of salt occupy the spaces unoccupied by the water, while the particles of sugar, being, as it is assumed, smaller than those of salt, occupy the spaces left unoccupied by the water and the salt,—in the same manner as peas may be made to occupy the spaces between a number of oranges, and the mustard-seeds the spaces between the peas. This is a beautiful theory, but will it bear any test?

In the above illustration we can readily see that we must obey the precise order, *i. e.*, first put the oranges into the basket, second the peas, and last of all the mustard-seeds, if we would get all three kinds into the basket without increasing the bulk. But suppose, after we have put in the oranges, we put in all the mustard-seeds we can, how

many peas, think you, shall we be able to put in without increasing the bulk?

But in the other experiment, it does not matter which we put into the water first, the sugar or the salt; either way we can get in both. Then how can we say that the particles of one are larger than those of the other? The inquiry arises, then, Is the above illustration, which we find in our text-books, a suitable one? If not, will some one please give us (through the *Journal*) the true one? A.

Berlin, *February 7th*, 1861.

THE REPLY OF DIOGENES.—Some allowance must be made for the limitation of human powers, I admit. Everybody can not know every thing. That may be a sad fact; but fact it is: I am perfectly sure of it, and will say it, even if the terrible Mr. Everybody gets angry about it. But worse than that,—it often happens that Mr. Somebody is ignorant of precisely the thing which, under the circumstances, he ought to know. I shall not allow *him* to take advantage of the excuse allowed to Everybody above; nor shall he escape by alleging that when he was ignorant of what I say he should know, he was so busy knowing some other useful or ornamental fact that he could not afford to know the particular fact which I say it belongs to him to know. I like to expose the ignorance of such somebodies; and when a man stands forth as a teacher and author, and teaches dreams for facts and nonsense for philosophy. Diogenes will expose him, even if some unfortunate rooster loses every feather to exhibit in nakedness the folly of a Plato. Be it known to all persons and parties that I, Diogenes, am still going around with my lantern, looking for honest men and for wise ones as well; that I am as currish as ever; that I delight in barking and biting; and that in these days of magazines and newspapers, Diogenes some times takes the pen and amuses himself with writing in modern style.

In the March number of the *Journal*, our friend A. of Berlin asks a number of questions. I don't wonder that A. asked the questions, and think B., C., D., and so on to Z., would not be unlikely to ask such: nevertheless, I laughed,—not at A., but at the fog in which Somebody (mischievous fellow) has involved himself and others too. I thought of the Irishman's direction for casting cannon: "Take a round hole and pour melted iron round it." Now I'll ask Mr. Z., as I will not be personal with Mr. A., "How could Pat do that without having the melted iron fill up his round hole that he had put in the middle?" "Oh, he couldn't do it at all!" "Well, Messrs. A. and Z., neither can we 'take a certain [or even an uncertain] quantity of water, and after dissolving in it as much salt as it will hold in solution,

put in a quantity of sugar, and then only have the same bulk we had before putting in the salt and sugar'; and all philosophizing on such a question is as empty of result as would be an attempt to explain how a man may get fat by eating moonshine with a pitchfork!" [*Loquitur* Miss Nancy: "Ah, Mr. Diogenes, you ought to study rhetoric before you write articles!" *Loquitur* Diogenes: "Ah, Miss Nancy, Diogenes makes his own rules of rhetoric."]

Upon the theory by which some man who is afflicted with mild insanity explains this fancied fact, Mr. A. turns the light of his lantern, and shows that the illustration of oranges, peas and mustard-seeds is a humbug; and he proposes that we first put in the oranges and mustard-seeds, and then see where the peas can go. My friend A. is right: even if the experiment were not a fancy, the illustration is too flimsy to bear the wear and tear of a single unfolding before an intelligent class. If the theory of solution is that particles of salt are smaller than those of water, and occupy the interstices to form a solution; and that in turn the particles of sugar are smaller than those of salt, and occupy the still smaller interstices between the particles of salt and of water; then every one must see that after saturating water with sugar we could not also dissolve salt in it. Now my friend A. next tries his skill at the manufacture of facts without knowledge; for he goes on to say: "But in the other experiment it does not matter which we put into the water first, the sugar or the salt; either way we can get in both." But how do you know it does not matter? You have never tried the experiment. Am I sure that you have not tried it? Yes, sir: for if you had you would have found out that there is a great increase of bulk by the solution. Do n't you acknowledge now that my charge is true?

I did not know until I read the query in the *Journal* that any of 'our text-books' furnished such an illustration; but I soon found it in *Parker's Philosophy*, wherein, while discoursing on 'impenetrability' the author asserts that fluids are as impenetrable as solids, and says: "A well-known fact seems at first view to be at variance with this statement. When a vessel is filled to the brim with water or other fluid, a considerable portion of salt may be dropped into the fluid without causing the vessel to overflow. And, when the salt has been added until the water can hold no more in solution, a considerable quantity of sugar can be added in a similar manner. The explanation of this familiar fact is as follows: the particles of the sugar are smaller than the particles of the salt and the particles which compose the water." He then gives a figure in illustration, and suggests the peas-and-mustard-seed experiment.

Now, Mr. Richard Green Parker, A. M., etc., while I am looking for a philosopher, I'll turn the light of Diogenes's lantern on you. You say 'filled with water *or other fluid*': now I'll take some *other fluid*, if you please: let us have olive oil; or melted wax; or kerosene; or oil of turpentine; or absolute alcohol; or quicksilver. "Oh," you say, "salt is either insoluble or but slightly soluble in these." Well, then, let us say aquafortis, or oil of vitriol: will these suit? Mr. Richard Green Parker, was it like a philosopher, like a true teacher, like an accurate man, to put in those words '*or other fluid*'? But I'll go on. You say that the particles of the sugar are smaller than the particles of water, and than the particles of the salt; implying, also, that particles of salt are smaller than those of water: Do you *know* this, or do you only *fancy* it? Have you ever seen separately those particles of which you talk so glibly; or have you by any other sense ascertained their relative size? Have you in any way obtained proof of what you assert? If not, is it RIGHT for you to teach the youth your baseless fancies as valid explanations in natural philosophy?

But I must let in light upon your 'familiar fact'. I am obliged to assume, as does our friend A. who uses your book, that you mean to teach that dropping salt into water gradually, so that it is dissolved almost or quite as fast as it is added, even to saturation of the water, does not increase the bulk of the fluid. If you do not mean this, there is no pertinency in what you have said as above quoted. So, too, you mean that after the water is saturated with salt, sugar may be added in considerable quantity without increasing the bulk of the fluid. So 'familiar' is the experiment that one might think that you had often seen it tried. "Mark, now, how a plain tale shall put you down."

I took a druggist's measure-glass and poured into it two fluid-ounces of well-water, the weight of which was about 1000 grains; this quantity of water should be saturated by about 375 grains of common salt; I took 360 grains of table-salt, and dissolved it without heat in the two ounces of water; and when the solution was completed, I measured the liquid and found that I had two ounces and two and a half drams: *the bulk of the fluid was increased fifteen and three-eighths per cent.* I then added to the solution of salt sugar to the amount 720 grains, which was dissolved without the aid of heat; I next measured the fluid and found that it amounted to two ounces nine and a half drams, having increased in bulk by the solution of the sugar seven drams, or forty-three and three-fourths per cent. on the original bulk. The total increase by both solutions was nearly

sixty per cent. The water was still far from saturation with sugar, since, according to Graham (Chemistry, Part III, Chapter 22, Section 1), so much cold water should dissolve 3000 grains of sugar; according to Youmans (Hand-book of Household Science, page 207), 2000 grains. At the same rate of expansion that I found in my experiment, which was about six and one-fourth per cent. for every hundred grains, the solution of two thousand grains of sugar would have increased the bulk of the mixed solution to thirty-eight drams; an increase of $137\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

I then varied the experiment by dissolving in other two ounces of water first 720 grains of sugar, which, as before, added seven drams to the bulk; and second, 360 grains of salt, which added two and a half drams; the results being identical with those of the former experiment.

Now, Mr. Parker, what becomes this 'well-known fact', this 'familiar fact'? I fear that your acquaintance with the Fact family, however 'familiar', might be bettered by greater intimacy. The whole tribe are said to be stubborn things, and they serve best those who know them best. I found this fictitious philosophy on the 22d page of the revised edition of your book, and while you are correcting it in a future edition, please turn to page 20, and erase *borax* and *silica* from your list of the twelve non-metallic simple elements, and put *boron* and *silicon* in their places; borax is held to be the biborate of soda, composed of boron, sodium, oxygen, and water of crystallization; and silica (or silicic acid) is the oxyd of silicon. So much for a mere glance into Parker's Philosophy. I presume our friend A. will not ask any further solution of his question, and we will leave Mr. Parker contriving fog-wreaths to deck imaginary forms.

In conclusion, Diogenes will tell teachers that they can hardly look with too sceptical a curiosity at experiments and 'facts' that are so 'familiar' as to have no responsible author, and at theoretical explanations that are not capable of verification. And when we reach the boundaries of our knowledge, let us honestly stop teaching, and abstain from imposing a cloud of words or a tissue of imaginations upon our pupils. There are lessons of wider reach than the matter of salt, sugar and water with which we began, that press for utterance; but the cynic has given his growl, and will not now attempt to act the philosopher, being only

DIOGENES ON A PRAIRIE.

QUESTION-ASKING IN RECITATIONS.

RECITATIONS are a daily, and perhaps almost hourly, necessity for every scholar in a school-room. There are several ways of conducting them so as to accomplish the general objects which a teacher should have in view—of learning how the lesson has been studied, and how far its information is understood and can be communicated. But these several ways all proceed on two principles, and therefore divide themselves into two classes. The one, and by far the most common, may be denominated the *Question Method*; while another may be called the *Memoriter Method*. In the first, the teacher proceeds to put such questions to the pupil as shall test his diligence in preparation, his sagacity at solving difficulties, his ability to grasp the whole meaning and purport of a train of thought, and his skill in finding words to express both the ideas of the lesson and his own conclusions on the topic in hand. The other merely expects the teacher to listen, and perhaps occasionally prompt, while the learner repeats, word for word, a paragraph or more of the task assigned.

Other methods of reciting, such as the *Lecture Method*, by the teacher, and the *Concert Method*, by the class, we do not propose now to speak of. All that we shall do is to put down a few thoughts and rules about the proper method of examining a class by means of questions. That this is the best method to adopt in a recitation, as well as the most common—though perhaps not the easiest one,—we do not doubt. In fact, it is the natural one, in our opinion, and we do not believe there can be found such a goad for the mind, to stimulate its activity, as the ‘point of interrogation’; nor indeed do we know such a power to crowd information into the mind as is this same point when properly used. If a teacher knows how to ask questions, he can do almost any thing for or with his scholars. And if he does not know how to use this implement of his calling better than the rod, and even better than a reward, he ought never be found in a school-room. Yet there are multitudes who do not know its use. So far from it, they have not the slightest conception of its importance or of its power; and hence they are as awkward in asking questions as an Irishman drafted for a soldier, fresh from the bogs, would be in the use of a musket. To know what is a question is by no means a small accomplishment in a teacher. To know how to frame one that shall not tell its own answer, and that shall nevertheless suggest a thought, is a greater art.

But to make questions that shall, in the first place, bring up before the mind of the scholar the truth he has learned, and shall also

teach him a higher truth, is the most difficult task of all. And in addition, to make such a series of questions as shall exhaust every paragraph and sentence of any given topic, and shall not fail to show their connection and dependence, is an evidence that a teacher has the very highest degree of pedagogic wisdom. A teacher may ask his questions so that his pupils can answer every one of them accurately, without having studied his lesson at all. This may seem strange, yet it is not unfrequent among easy college professors, where shrewd boys will contrive to answer by yes, or no, sir, and combine the question into a vague reply, so as, in half the instances, to deceive the questioner. These are some times 'leading questions', as the lawyers would call them, which in themselves indicate the answer to be given; or which, as Thomas H. Benton used to say of some bills offered in the Senate of the United States, carry their own answer in their bellies. Such questions are worse than useless. They are a great damage to the scholarship and morality of the pupils. Then there are other forms of questions which directly include a half or more of the answer, and indirectly imply all the rest. These are not so bad as the others, but they are bad enough, and will never make scholars. Others still are so general and indefinite that they could have been asked on almost any other topic, and would have applied equally well.

There are several requisites of a good question. First, it should be very brief. If it is not, it will be too hard for the scholar to remember the whole of it, and he can not reply to it all in proper order. Secondly, it should be in such form that no part of it, save perhaps its leading word, can be used in framing an answer. This leading word indicates the topic, and must be used; but every subordinate word should be formed in the pupil's own memory or by his ingenuity. These two characteristics of a question apply to each one taken separately and apart from all others. But in every recitation there must be a series of questions. Hence there must be found two other characteristics, to wit: no one question ought to include what another question has asked, unless the teacher, as he will some times, designs to repeat in another form; and the whole of the series taken together should completely exhaust the subject-matter of the recitation. In addition, or rather presupposed in all cases, the words in which a question is couched, and the arrangement of these words, should be simple, precise, perspicuous, and correct as to syntax and logic. Now to ask questions in this manner is by no means an easy task, nor one learned in a day, nor yet is it a gift of nature. One may have a greater aptitude than another for asking questions, but it will never

be safe for even a Yankee to trust to this gift without study. This kind of questioning will demand that the teacher shall have studied the whole lesson, and its purport and connections; and that he has thoroughly mastered every idea and sentence. No harder task awaits the teacher than this of making clear, distinct, instructive questions, which shall aid the scholar in the work of acquiring knowledge, and in communicating it, and at the same time shall give him strength and discipline of mind. It will cost not only study of the lesson, but of the laws of thought and of the forms of expression, and will demand a severe exercise of all the powers of a mind thoroughly trained by exercise, and fully informed by large observation and reading.

This topic is a large one, and one that could easily be expanded into an essay, but we must leave it for a more particular one; though, before we enter upon that, we will pause to say a word about the questions often printed at the foot of the page, or at the end of the text-book, and called 'Questions for Examination', or 'Examination Questions'. While it is admitted that those questions are as nearly perfect as they well can be according to the canon laid down heretofore by which to try questions, we do protest against them as the greatest of nuisances. They seem to have been contrived by lazy book-makers, for the perpetuation and increase of laziness in both teachers and scholars. For a teacher may use a text-book so *defiled* with the smutty thinking of some pedantic author, and never have begun to comprehend the first elements of the lesson or science he is teaching; and a scholar may go through with such a book, and answer every question, and never once have read, much less have studied, the whole of a single page, word by word. He may only have read to himself the question and hunted the answer in half a sentence, which he memorizes, and flings at the teacher almost by guess, whenever a question is thrown at him. If a demon had desired to spoil all scholars, and had set himself, with the highest diabolical wisdom, to invent a contrivance by which to do this work in the shortest time and with the most unerring certainty, he could not have contrived a better scheme for this purpose than these questions appended to our most popular school text-books. Do you say our teachers are too young and immatured, too little skilled and have too little practice in the use of language, to do without these questions? Then let them learn and practice. Let them study and prepare, and become able to ask questions for themselves before they undertake to teach.

How shall a recitation, by means of question and answer, be conducted? In the first place, the teacher must have prepared his questions—not necessarily by having written them—before he comes to

the recitation. He must have learned what he is to ask about, and how many questions he shall put, so as to cover the whole ground completely. He must have the general form of these in his mind, and must be able to clothe them in elegant and expressive words. Then when his class is before him he should ask a question distinctly and pertinently, looking at no member of his class, and, after a pause long enough for every one to have thought of the answer, he should indicate the one who is to answer, and wait a proper time for the reply. If no reply is given, he should never repeat the question, but call on another—not upon the one sitting by the side of the first—for an answer. And so go on, asking questions and hearing replies, till the whole topic is gone over.

Let us illustrate this by a recollection of a good teacher, whose memory is green in the hearts of many a hard-working, useful man and woman in various parts of our country. We called at his school-room one day, and found him just beginning a recitation on the tenses in English Grammar. There were four boys and six girls in the class, and he proceeded somewhat as follows. We recollect almost the exact words, for we had never before heard a recitation so carried on, and were at once captivated with the plan, and determined to try it. We found it a hard task, however; but we have persevered in it till we like it, for its exciting effect upon ourselves, as well as for its power to command the attention and sharpen the wits of our pupils.

"What is Tense. [a pause] Susan?"

"Tense means time," said Susan.

"Is that a correct answer, James?" This question came without any pause, for he had seen James looking across the school-house the moment Susan's name had been called.

"Tense," said James, "is that form of the verb which indicates the time of the action."

"I did not ask you what is tense, but was Susan's answer correct?"

"I did n't hear her answer," said James.

"Will you tell him what it was, William?"

"I did not hear it," said William.

"Answer again, Susan."

"Tense means time," said she.

"Which is the correct answer, Mary?"

"James's," said she.

"To what does Susan's answer allude, Samuel?"

"It alludes to the meaning of the word tense, I suppose," said he.

"If I had asked my question in this way, What is a tense?—what would have been your answer,—Harriet?"

"I should have said, It is a form of the verb indicating the time of action."

"Is there any difference between the answer now given and that given by James,—Thomas?"

"I do not see any difference."

"Is this definition correct, then?"

"I think not, sir."

"How, then, will you define tense?"

"I do not know," said he; "but the book gives Susan's definition in one place and James's in another."

"And what does James's definition describe?"

"A tense—a particular tense."

"What does Susan's definition mark, Julia?"

"It defines the word tense."

"Can you tell, then, what tense is?"

"No, sir."

"What belong to verbs, according to our yesterday's lesson?"

"Voices, moods, tenses, number, and persons."

"What, then, are tenses,—Hannah?"

"They are properties of verbs."

"Did we not find a better word than *properties*, yesterday?"

"They are modifications of verbs."

"Now, will you define tense,—Mary?"

"Tense is a modification of the verb."

"Liddy?"

"Tense is a property or modification of the verb, indicating the time of the action."

The teacher then proceeded to ask how many tenses, and what was the mode in which each modified the verb, and also what was the form of the tense; always putting his questions distinctly to the whole class, and then calling the name of the scholar who should answer, and frequently stopping to inquire of those who were inclined to be inattentive to the answers, if such an answer were correct, or what it was, or to what it had reference. The result was that every scholar answered every question in his mind, and gave his full attention to every thing that came up. And if he began to grow careless, the interrogation point was suddenly and vigorously applied to his mind, to wake, and excite his thoughts and his ambition. But when a teacher begins at one end of his class, and goes round in a regular order, calling on each next scholar to answer the next question, not more than half his pupils will pay an undivided attention. To ask questions in such a way is almost as bad as reading them from the

book; yet many teachers do even worse than this. How many teachers have we known who would have begun the lesson on the tenses before mentioned by asking:

“Is a tense a form of the verb?”

“Does it mean time?”

“Does it indicate manner?”

“Does it indicate the time of the act?”

And so on, making every question tell its own answer, or at least putting it in such a form that it can be completely answered by yes or no. Other teachers are very careless and slovenly about their questions. We have heard more than one ask:

“What *is* tenses?”

“How many *is* there?”

“Have you *done* your sums.”

And even worse still, and by far more to be deplored. Then some others put every question into the same form, never varying it, and using that particular form always. We know one of our own teachers who continually asked, “What does your author say about this?” till the whole school made it a by-word, ‘What does your author say’; and another, who commonly inquired, “What is the sense of the paragraph?” till we called him ‘paragraph sense’.

Let us recapitulate: Never put a question to a scholar individually, but always to the whole class. Give each one a time to think. Then call on some individual—the one who seems least of all to be ready,—and demand of him a reply. Pass on rapidly in this way, changing from one part of the class to another, from one scholar to another, as unexpectedly as possible, so as to hold the attention and increase the interest of all. Such a mode of asking questions may become very exciting in a large class, and will keep them all on the keenest stretch of thought. Never let the class know, even by a look or a movement of the head, who is to be called on, till the name is given out; and then let it be understood that he must answer or be disgraced in some way. Before your recitation, study not only your lesson, but your questions and their grammatical construction, and be careful they are framed so as to include all the lesson, and to suggest a great deal more. And do not let them be indistinctly given out, and do not tolerate any indistinct, mumbling, half-conceived, stammering answers. Secure, in your own case as a teacher, three things: clearness of idea, perspicuity and definiteness of language, and distinctness of enunciation and accuracy of composition for all your questions; and insist that your scholars shall imitate you in all these particulars.

When a recitation is thus conducted by question and answer, it will cultivate every power of the mind for the scholar, and it will be far

more valuable than any attempt to memorize the exact train of thought laid down in the book. It will, however, more properly apply to text-books that contain arguments and explanations, rather than to such as are chiefly made up of definitions merely. Thus a work on mental philosophy will give the teacher more trouble to frame his questions than one on grammar. Yet the method here recommended is well adapted to all text-books and to all topics and branches of study; and any one may, by practice, become skillful in its use. And when he has acquired such an art, or such an accomplishment, he will certainly enjoy a recitation as a delightful treat, and his pupils will not grow sleepy and stupid under his instructions. Try it, brother teachers, and make yourselves the better by means of it, and you will do more to raise the next generation to vigor of thought and accuracy of belief than all the lectures you can deliver, or all the memoritic recitations they can make, or than all the fragmentary answers to the book questions they could learn, or hear, or repeat, in a thousand years.

ROBERT ALLYN, in *Journal of Progress*, April, 1861.

HABITS AND MANNERS.

WE have long felt that in the most of our schools there has not been sufficient attention given to the cultivation of correct habits and pleasing manners. With committees, teachers, and parents, the prominent aim has been to hurry over the book, or to pursue many studies. The cultivation of the heart has been a minor consideration, if, indeed, it has been taken into the account at all. This ought not so to be. A man may be a profound scholar, but if his morals are corrupt, or his address and manners rough and uncongenial, his influence will be evil, or his usefulness will be very materially impaired. A cultivated intellect alone may prove a curse; but a cultivated intellect with well-cultivated moral perceptions, refined manners, and pleasing address, will constitute a powerful influence for good.

If this is true, how carefully and assiduously should the teacher labor to secure right heart-training. All bad habits should be eradicated, and abrupt and uncourteous modes of expression or address, uncouth or rough habits, should all receive skillful pruning at the hands of the teacher; and daily, both by example and precept, should

the pupils be allured and encouraged to exercise true manly and genial traits of character. Genuine politeness, that will lead one at all times to use tones and give utterance to expressions that will tend to impart happiness to others, should be constantly kept in view by teachers, so that, if possible, their pupils may go forth into the community prepared to exert a happy and refining influence upon all with whom they may associate. Let it be, therefore, deemed an essential duty on the part of the teacher to watch the habits, manners and conversation of his pupils, not only in the school-room, but by the wayside, upon the play-ground, or wherever he may meet them. Let him constantly strive to impress upon the hearts of his pupils such lessons as will tend to develop the character and bearing of true gentlemen, of Christian gentlemen. Let it not be forgotten that in a few brief years those who are now pupils in the school-room will be the active men upon the busy stage of life, and what they are to become depends, perhaps, more upon the moulding hand of the teacher than upon any other human instrumentality. Teachers, do n't forget that you are, in a very important sense, manufacturers of men. So labor in your noble work that hereafter your pupils may feel, as they engage in life's duties, that they have been thoroughly furnished at your hands, and so that you may feel a conscious pride, as you mark their success in life, in feeling that they were once your pupils. A noble work is yours. See that it is well performed.

Normal.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF OSWEGO, N. Y.—A NEW SYSTEM.

THE schools are divided into Primary, Junior, Senior, and High, with twelve Primaries, four Juniors, two Seniors, and one High School. The number of pupils registered as attending all of them during the year is about 4,000. The entire amount of money expended by the Board of Education for teachers' wages, salary of Superintendent, repairs of school-houses, library, apparatus, and all other expenses, is about \$29,000 a year, making the average cost of the education of each pupil registered \$7.25

The Primary Schools are divided into three classes, called A, B, and C. On entering school the children are placed in the C class: at the end of the first year these are examined and promoted to the B class, where they remain another year, when they are again examined, and promoted to the A class. At the close of the third year

another examination takes place, when those who are qualified are promoted from the A class to the Junior School.

These Primary Schools are attracting much attention from educators in different parts of our country, on account of the new system of instruction which is carried out in them. It is a systematic course of graduated 'Object Lessons', on a plan similar to that of the 'Home and Colonial Training Schools' of London.

In addition to teaching the children to read, which is well done, they are taught *form*, the elementary steps of geometry, by comparing, matching, drawing, and learning the names of pieces of wood cut in shapes of squares, rhombs, triangles, circles, cylinders, cubes, etc. They learn *size*, by measuring (with a rule or tape) lines drawn on the black-board, or sticks, strings, length and width of the room. They are first required to measure all objects with the eye, then to apply the rule to test the accuracy of the eye-measurement. Each school is provided with a pair of scales and weights. The pupils are required to lift and guess at the weight of books, small bags of pebbles, of beans, or of shot, cubes of lead and of iron, and then to weigh them. The accuracy with which those thus trained will judge of the weight of objects is astonishing.

The children are taught the first ideas of number, in classes of twenty or thirty, by each handling and counting beans and pebbles; adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing with them. These objects are arranged on a shelf across one side of the room.

Color is taught by means of worsteds, colored cards, and other objects, by matching those that are alike, and learning their names. They also show how other colors may be produced by mixing the three primary ones—red, yellow, and blue.

They are taught to point out, name, and tell the use of, the principal part of the human body, as a step preparatory to the knowledge of physiology. They are taught the first ideas of geography, by learning to describe the location of objects in and about the school-room; proceeding gradually to the streets and principal buildings of the city, and thence to the towns of the country.

Animals, birds, fish, reptiles, and insects, or colored pictures of them, are shown; and the children are led to observe their differences, while the teacher gradually adds descriptions of their habits, thus enkindling a love for the study of nature. A knowledge of plants and flowers is taught in the same manner.

It is important that the principles of this elementary training in these different departments of knowledge be understood. These several lessons are introduced for the purpose of teaching the children

to *see*, *observe*, and *think*, for mental development. The idea of imparting instruction on these several subjects is a secondary consideration: hence very little importance is placed on the ability of the children to memorize words, repeat tables, etc., but a great deal on training them to *observe* and *describe*, thus calling out and developing their own powers in a natural way. The plan of instruction is to show the object, and require the children to tell every thing that they can learn about it by seeing and feeling it; then to gradually lead them by questions and descriptions to a more complete knowledge of the object than can be learned by merely seeing and handling it. By this process the powers of the child's mind are developed so that the acquisition of knowledge becomes a habit which affords it pleasure.

One need not long observe the effect of this kind of training upon the children to decide upon its superiority over the common practice of filling the memory with words without a knowledge of things. It begins just where Nature begins to teach the child, with things, going from them to words as the symbols of things; whereas our common modes of teaching reverse Nature's plan, and attempt to teach a knowledge of things chiefly through the medium of words. All may readily determine the relative merit of the two systems by recalling how much more complete their own knowledge is of those objects which they have seen than it is of what they have only read about.

Some idea of the appreciation of these primary schools by the parents of the children attending them may be formed from the fact that many have requested that their children might remain in the primary schools another year, that they might receive a more thorough course of object-training. To meet this demand, the same system of training is to be extended into the junior schools. In order to obtain teachers qualified for carrying out the plan thoroughly, a training teacher has been engaged from the 'Home and Colonial Training-School' to come here and take charge of a model training-school to be opened this spring. This is an important step in the right direction, and indicates the noble enterprise of the Board of Education of this city. The existence of only *two* small private schools in this city of 19,000 inhabitants, and the fact that not *ten* pupils have been sent out of Oswego during the past year to be educated, except those who went to college or some similar institution, are significant facts which commend the condition of the public schools here in stronger terms than mere words could do. The sentiment that 'the public schools are good enough for the richest, and cheap enough for the poorest' seems to be the prevailing one. During the recent examinations the practical exhibition of this spirit has often been

witnessed, when the son or daughter of the retired business man has stood side by side with the child of the day-laborer, showing that both had received the same instruction and made equal progress.

For the present condition of the public schools here the citizens are chiefly indebted to the indefatigable labors of their efficient Secretary, E. A. Sheldon, Esq., whose practical plans have been nobly indorsed by an intelligent Board of Education. The schools of this city are in advance of those of any other city in the Union in the practical character and philosophical principles of their system of primary training; but we hope the time is not far distant when the schools throughout our country may thus conform more nearly to the genius of our institutions.

Letter in N. Y. Tribune, April 9, 1861.

Oswego, N. Y., March 30, 1861.

SPENCER'S ESSAYS ON EDUCATION.

WE know of very few books that have any claim to the name of philosophical works on education. The theory of teaching is more or less treated in connection with suggestions of practice and of useful methods; but the whole tone of such works is empirical. The general statements and the particular methods are those suggested by individual experience and observation; and they have no such connection as to indicate that there lies in the mind of the writer such an understanding of the nature of the human mind as it shows itself in children, and such a knowledge of things to be taught and of their relative value, and such appreciation of the method of teaching and governing, as he must have to whom education is a science and an art—a philosophy and a practice. Perhaps it is not yet time to expect a philosophy of education: the cycle of preliminary experiment is not yet exhausted; and until all schemes of error shall have been put to the test, we may not know how and what to choose. Nevertheless, there are now talkers many, writers many, and actors many; and we may hope that, as the world is really learning some things in politics, in political economy, and in ethics, as well as in mathematics and natural science, it will not be long before fundamental principles can be stated in the philosophy of education. Whatever is offered as such philosophy in the present time is in fact only a contribution toward it—a contribution of material for the palace that is yet to rise.

The most important philosophical contribution that we have had in a long time is the little volume of essays by Mr. Herbert Spencer.* The four treatises composing the volume, though written for three different English Reviews, were written with a controlling unitary purpose, and hence form a well-composed book when put together. The first of the four we read with great interest when we read it in the *Westminster Review* (No. cxli), and expressed a wish that it could be read by every teacher, school-officer and parent in the land; a wish which the intervening period and our further reflections have not diminished in force. To us it is the most valuable of the treatises, and the most philosophical. It raises the question '*What Knowledge is of the most Worth?*', and proceeds to show what influences (of feelings, reason, and custom) usually determine men to choose a course of education, and what considerations should exercise a controlling influence. The first essay, and the second one, on *Intellectual Education*, we propose specially to notice at this time. We desire to introduce Mr. Spencer's volume to our readers by something more than the general terms of commendation which can be given in a brief book-notice; and we hope that many a thoughtful teacher and parent may rejoice in communion with the thoughts of these essays.

Before Mr. Spencer attempts the solution or even the statement of the main question '*What knowledge is of most worth?*', he notices the fact that this question is rarely raised; that as decoration among savages is more important than dress, so among civilized people the ornamental in education is more regarded than the useful; and that when a course of study is chosen, it is not selected for its utility, but under the influence of whim or custom. And the reason of this fact he finds in the other "fact that, from the far past down even to the present, social needs have subordinated individual needs; and that the chief social need has been the control of individuals." We seek power over others; the means of impressing them; "and it is this which determines the character of our education. Not what knowledge is of most real worth is the consideration; but what will bring most applause, honor, respect—what will most conduce to social position and influence—what will be most imposing. As through life, not what we are but what we shall be thought is the question, so in education, the question is not the intrinsic value of knowledge so much as its extrinsic effects on others."

And even when the question of relative values of different knowledges is in some sort raised, no standard of value is recognized, and

* Education, Intellectual, Moral, and Physical. By Herbert Spencer, author of *Social Statistics*, *Principles of Psychology*, etc. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

the whole quest is bootless if mere caprice or fashion is to decide it at last. The oft-debated question respecting the superiority of classics or mathematics is insignificant in relation to the real question that should be proposed; and deciding it—if decision were possible—is no nearer approach to the answer of the great question which he proposes than choice between potatoes and bread is to a settlement of the whole theory of diet! A measure of relative value is, then, the first requisite in any controversy on the value of knowledge; and this measure is suggested in the following paragraph.

“How to live—that is the essential question for us. Not how to live in the mere material sense only, but in the widest sense. The general problem which comprehends every special problem is—the right ruling of conduct in all directions, under all circumstances. In what way to treat the body; in what way to treat the mind; in what way to manage our affairs; in what way to bring up a family; in what way to behave as a citizen; in what way to utilize all those sources of happiness which nature supplies—how to use all our faculties to the greatest advantage of ourselves and others—how to *live* completely. And this, being the great thing needful for us to learn, is, by consequence, the great thing which education has to teach. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging of any educational course is to judge in what degree it discharges such function. This test, never used in its entirety, but rarely even partially used, and used then in a vague, half-conscious way, has to be applied consciously, methodically, and throughout all cases. It behooves us to set before ourselves and ever to keep clearly in view *complete living* as the end to be achieved; so that in bringing up our children we may choose subjects and methods of instruction with deliberate reference to this end. . . . It must not suffice simply to *think* that such or such information will be useful in after life, or that this kind of knowledge is of more practical value than that; but we must seek out some process of estimating their respective values, so that as far as possible we may positively *know* which are most deserving of attention.”

Mr. Spencer's next step is “to classify in the order of their importance the leading kinds of activity which constitute human life. They may be naturally arranged into—1. Those activities which directly minister to self-preservation; 2. Those activities which, by securing the necessaries of life, indirectly minister to self-preservation; 3. Those activities which have for their end the rearing and discipline of offspring; 4. Those activities which are involved in the mainten-

ance of proper social and political relations; and 5. Those miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings. That these stand in something like their true order of subordination it needs no long consideration to show." "We do not mean to say that these divisions are definitely separable. We do not deny that they are intricately entangled with each other in such way that there can be no training for any that is not in some measure a training for all. Nor do we question that of each division there are portions more important than certain portions of the preceding divisions: that, for instance, a man of much skill in business, but little other faculty, may fall further below the standard of complete living than one of but moderate power of acquiring money, but great judgment as a parent. Of course, the ideal of education is complete preparation in all these divisions. But failing this ideal as in our phase of civilization every one must do more or less, the aim should be to maintain *a due proportion* between the degrees of preparation in each. Not exhaustive preparation in any one, supremely important though it may be; not even an exclusive attention to the two, three or four divisions of greatest importance; but an attention to all, greatest where the value is greatest, less where the value is less, least where the value is least."

We can not further follow with so much of detail the course of Mr. Spencer's analysis and solution of his question: he takes up in succession each of the five divisions above, and under each branch draws the conclusion that Science is the 'Knowledge of most Worth'. With his conclusions all must agree as they read along and are led step by step by his lucid statements and clear reasonings and well-chosen illustrations. His special applications of his views may be some times disputed, but even the errors of a wise man are instructive. There is not, however, in the essay any definition of Science; and the reader may be at a loss to apply the conclusion in accordance with the meaning of the writer, because of this lack. He seems to mean by science facts organized into system by true generalizations.* Thus he justly gives to History as it stands at present a low value as a branch of education, because it is a mass of unorganized and unorganizable facts. DeQuincey (in his *Letters to a Young Man whose Education has been Neglected*) says that 'all knowledge may be conveniently divided into science and erudition'; and under such a

* Sir William Hamilton's definition, as we find it in Worcester's Dictionary, is worthy of citation: he defined science as a 'complement of cognitions, having in point of form the character of logical perfection, and in point of matter the character of real truth'.

division History must fall into the latter division, and thus into the knowledges that are of subordinate value. If we understand Science to mean, as we have said above, facts organized into system by true generalizations, it will readily be admitted that in each of the first four divisions of Mr. Spencer's classification such facts and generalizations are the most important, and least liable to be depreciated as knowledges by advances in learning and investigation. This is less evident respecting the fifth division, but is manifestly true there to whatever extent science can be applied or used.

We can not help thinking, nevertheless, that while as the architect of an educational scheme we must agree with Mr. Spencer's classification above given, and say that as means to the great end of living the several activities and their corresponding knowledges take rank as above said, our view of the subject must be quite different when we consider ends rather than means. St. Paul says, "That was not first which was spiritual, but that which is natural, and afterward that which is spiritual." But though the natural is first in order and necessarily first, we consider it as existing for the sake of the spiritual. Considered as a means, a body, and a healthy body, is essential to complete living; yet it is not true that we live for the body, and that all other things must yield that we may have such bodies. On the contrary, it is often necessary that the body be exposed to damage, destruction, and death, at the claim of honor, love, patriotism, or duty. The soldier who faces death for his country, the martyr who dies for the spread of truth, Howard in the feverish jail and Florence Nightingale wasting her life in the camp-hospital, the parents who spend laborious lives for their beloved ones,—these and all like these count life and subsistence of less importance than obedience to the high sentiments and emotions that stir and strengthen them. For such things we live. Our educational philosophy must not overlook the very blossoming and fruitage of life. Education itself is but a means; a means for this very end of having a man of noble sentiments and deeds, one who shall fulfill the old catechismal formula of the chief end of man, 'to glorify God and enjoy him for ever'.

In planning a course of education we are justified in giving importance to things which are mere means, and in giving them the highest importance for the time being. That there may be a perfect man, capable of the autonomy of a man, we must first have the human animal, the healthy boy becoming the strong man; this is the first and most important *natural* step toward the *spiritual* end. He must be able to secure his subsistence, and to form a member of the family, and of society, and of the state: these things considered as means merely are

named in the order of their relative natural importance; but considered as ends we must reverse the order. Man sacrifices himself and his family to the good of his country; he sacrifices himself to his family; and he foregoes the perfection of his bodily life that he may obtain subsistence. We adopt the order of relative importance suggested by Mr. Spencer only because the period of life which is given to tutelage, to education under the direction of another, is rightly viewed as a means for the attainment of great ends in a later period; and the order of spiritual importance is reversed in consideration of natural means. The most important part of the house in fact, as an end, is that in which the family has its home; but the architect looks to the foundation, which is buried in the earth, and to the frame-work, which is hidden as the structure proceeds, as of the first importance: unless these are made strong and good there can be no home.

We are not opposing in these suggestions any thing in the essay under consideration; and yet we may attach too much importance to some things even as means unless we remember that they are but means; and a due regard to harmony and to symmetry of development is essential, though it is very difficult of attainment.

We find ourselves obliged to close our article without attempting to speak of the essay on *Intellectual Education*; and we hope to resume consideration of the volume at some other time not far distant.

EDITOR.

S C H O O L R E A D E R S .

MR. EDITOR: Do not be surprised at the title of this article; let it claim your attention for a few moments, for I come to you not with hasty speculations, but with a firm, fixed, and I think well-grounded, opinion: one that has long prevailed.

If the thoughts or suggestions I may throw out will but start a train of inquiry, and thus result in good to our school readers, my wish will be accomplished and my end gained.

If you, sir, were a mechanic, and wished to excel in your profession, would you not require that your 'tools of trade' should be, not only of the finest workmanship, but exactly fitted for the purpose for which they were designed?

Were you a teacher, would you not wish for text-books adapted to the object aimed at, viz., perfection in some particular branch?

Now, sir, if in the use of our reading-books, by fully competent teachers, pupils will not progress, but in many cases retrograde in this branch, why, there must be a fault some where; and where that fault is it is the design of the present article to show.

1st. The child can comprehend (and I desire to speak charitably) but few of the prose lessons in the books presented to him for use. This will not call for an argument to convince the practical teacher, but that authors may know what I think of their work, I will append a few reasons for this conclusion.

Now, there are (as is the result of my practice) two very important reasons why the child does not comprehend. First, in the use of too lofty language, and secondly, in the improper treatment and selection of subjects of which the child as yet knows nothing and cares less. Why how preposterous for authors to try to show their literary attainments to children. What nonsense to interlard their sentences with high-sounding words and phrases, and occasionally drop a lovely little Latin word, or fragment of French, just to show the reader *what a great man he, the writer, is*.

Now, I do contend that the style should be very plain and simple; *so simple*, that the child will have definite ideas of what he reads without stopping to consult a dictionary.

If such is the case his voice will be natural, and one of the primary causes of that sleepy, dreamy and *dreaded monotone* will be avoided.

I speak confidently on this point, for a ready perception and proper expression are inseparable.

As well might a child attempt to read Arabic, of which he knows nothing, as to pronounce long, difficult, and to him meaningless, words; *it is all Arabic* to him.

Do you ask for proof? Well, as an occasional exercise, I allow my scholars to select pieces for reading, and I find that uniformly all tolerably smart pupils choose those stories which are clothed in a simple style, which is the child's own language, and these pieces they read well; in evidence of which I have the breathless silence in the school-room, and not unfrequently the tearful eye, or suppressed laugh, at some sad tale or merry joke which is readily caught.

Now for the second reason, to wit, the improper treatment and selection of subjects. Mere abstractions are not pleasing to children, and in fact few men are interested in them. What folly, then, to treat of them in preparing books for the young. How much better to tell a simple story which embodies the truth that you may wish to present. This makes it attractive, and all books for children should

be so, as well as instructive. I may talk to John or Ellen about the beauties of honesty, truthfulness, or what I like, but they are listless. Let me tell them a story where Charles triumphed through his unswerving honesty, and they are delighted. Or, wishing to impress truthfulness, I relate the story of Washington and one of his father's fruit-trees, and I have attentive listeners. Now is the moment for moulding the immortal mind, for when the ear is gained you can play upon the heart-strings at will.

But further, to treat of things of which the child has no cognizance, as is frequently the case, seems to me highly improper. The author should draw facts from real life, and so vividly picture them that the child will follow his footsteps with pleasure, and when the rattle is over will not only remember that which he has read, but will feel a keen relish for more. To speak scripturally, we should feed children with food convenient for them: they should not starve, (which *now* is too often the case, for lack of proper reading. Neither should they surfeit from indigestible essays, embalmed in rolls of unheard-of words. If they are allowed thus to gorge themselves, we may not wonder that they are poor readers.

History speaks of the seven wonders of the world, and I think that we might safely add an *εighth*, should scholars under the present system become good readers. We do not expect the little tyro to reason with the readiness of the sage. If we were to train a boy for the purpose of making him physically strong, it would be very unwise in us to lay on him a man's burden at the outset: for quite likely he would refuse the second lesson. We must advance by the inductive system.

So in mental training in any department of science, we must proceed by easy marches to the goal. Men must learn to unbend when talking to our youth.

Who is it that interests the children of the Sabbath school? Is it your man of method and theories, mathematical and philosophical? No, no, he is a simple story-teller: but he has the children in a moment. In relating his story he can send home many thrusts to the hearts of his hearers, stirring their emotions and stimulating their intellects. But in doing this there are bounds that he may not pass. If he does, the result of his recklessness will soon be too apparent.

But we must press another point, and we hope it will be in our power to make it as clear to our readers as it is to us. I wish to speak of poetry, of which we have a superabundance in our school readers. *This* is a point which I now wish to discuss, and which I think calls for immediate, urgent action. Should pupils read

poetry before they can give good execution to prose; or until they are of sufficient age to understand it? We say, *No!* most decidedly, and here we must find fault with those who compile reading-books for the young. It is the source of that '*sing-song*' style which ever bores one. Even in the sanctuary, the solemn service is frequently marred by this monotonous, mechanical movement, acquired in youth by reading what was not understood. Now it is plain to any one who will take but a single thought that poetry is not so easily comprehended as prose; *especially classical*, which does not creep into the corner giving place to that which is more simple, but covers conspicuously many, *very* many, pages.

Now how perfectly absurd is this! What do authors expect? Do they suppose that children can pronounce properly what they do not comprehend? If they do, let them listen to a child giving expression to Dryden, Pope, or Shakspeare. 'T is absolutely horrible. We give it as our opinion that they would be frightened, could they but listen to his or her feeble tones; and should we wonder? For, to give proper expression to Shakspeare's thoughts we must follow Shakspeare's flights of fancy; we must fully realize their height and magnitude; all his sublime imagery must be unfolded and fathomed.

Now there are but few matured minds that can do this; and consequently but few men who can render it properly, and they are so shackled by the bad habits of school training that much pains and quantities of patience are spent in unlearning and unlimbering themselves from the injurious effects of *early injudicious training*. Hence the folly of asking a child to pronounce poetry. It is simply premature, and therefore impossible. Make him, and you torment yourself and do him a lasting injury.

To conclude, our view of a good school reader is this: more of simple narrative, dressed in suitable language; no redundancy of words, no ostentatious show of knowledge, no poetry, until the child is of sufficient age or capacity to comprehend it. In short, have our Readers so simplified that those who read may clearly understand what they read, and we shall, as a reasonable result, have *more good reading, and consequently more good scholars*.

R. H. P., in Conn. Com. School Journal, May, 1861.

THE philosopher Frazer says that, "though a man without money is poor, a man with nothing but money is still poorer."

IMPROVED METHODS OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

It is a remarkable fact in the history of education that, while the *Grammar Schools* of the United States have led the corresponding grades of schools in Great Britain in the introduction of improved methods of instruction, most of the *Primary Schools* of this country are in this respect several years behind the Primary Schools of Great Britain. England is at the present time receiving lessons of us in the analytical methods of teaching Arithmetic and English Grammar, and we are learning of her the art of introducing young children to a knowledge of the world in which they live.

Barnard's recent work on Object Teaching and Oral Instruction contains a reprint of several valuable English manuals relating to primary instruction, and we have at length the *promise* of two or more original works on object teaching in this country. Their appearance will be welcomed by every intelligent primary teacher.

Most of the Normal Schools of the country are now fully awake to the importance of substituting natural methods of elementary instruction for the arbitrary and mechanical methods that have heretofore so extensively prevailed. Educational Periodicals and Teachers' Institutes are also exerting a salutary influence on this subject.

Among the best works that have been prepared for the guidance of primary teachers are four small volumes issued by the Home and Colonial School Society of London. About a year and a half since, the Board of Education of Oswego, N. Y., imported a supply of these little manuals for the use of the primary teachers of the city, and introduced the system of the Home and Colonial School Society. The Board were so well pleased with this experiment that they went one step farther, and engaged Miss Jones, the lady who has had the charge of the Training School under the patronage of the Home and Colonial School Society for the last fifteen years, to come to Oswego and take the charge of a department, in connection with the public schools, for the special training of primary teachers.

Miss Jones has already arrived in this country, and her class will be organized about the first of August. She is to remain only one year, and the course of instruction will be completed about May, 1862. The school will be strictly professional in its character, and the plan will be similar, in many respects, to that of the Model Schools in connection with our Normal Schools. The object of the Oswego Board is, primarily, to benefit their own schools, and secondarily, to introduce

the system into this country. The Secretary of the Board of Education, E. A. Sheldon, Esq., invites good teachers from different parts of the country to join the class; that the system may be well represented in other cities and states.

Having been myself largely indebted to the school-manuals issued by the Colonial and Home Society, I believe I am rendering a useful service in calling the attention of teachers to this important movement of the Oswego Board of Education.

W. H. W.

Chicago.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

IN place of our regular Mathematical Department, we must give, for reasons stated in the Editor's Table, the following lessons in Practical Arithmetic from the January and April Nos. of the *Maine Teacher*.

THE GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR.—When one of the given numbers can be readily resolved into small prime factors, the briefest way is to separate this number into its prime factors, and multiply together those factors which are contained in all the other numbers. Hence the following Rule for finding the Greatest Common Divisor when one of the numbers can be readily separated into small prime factors :

Separate the number which can be most readily factored into its prime factors. Reject those of these factors which can not be contained in all the other numbers. The product of the remaining factors will be the greatest common divisor.

Examples.—1. Find the greatest common divisor of 112, 147, 168, 189. By inspection we separate 112 into the factors $2^4, 7$; 2^4 , being evidently not common, is rejected, and 7, the only common factor, is the greatest common measure.

2. Find the greatest common divisor of 940, 747, 529, and 551. By inspection we separate 940 into the factors $2^2, 5, 47$; 2^2 and 5, being evidently not common, are rejected, and we ascertain by a single trial that 47 is not a common factor. The answer is, therefore, 1.

If the prime factors of the numbers are all large, the following Rule, by Pliny Earle Chase, is the most expeditious we have seen :

1. Divide all the given numbers by the least of them, and bring down the remainders.

2. Divide the first divisor and all of the first remainders by the least of them, and bring down the remainder.

3. Proceed in this manner until a remainder is found that will measure all the other remainders and the divisor first used, and this will be the greatest common divisor.

N.B. Every abbreviation that can be used at any step of the process, such as rejecting factors that are evidently not common, etc., should of course be employed.

Example.—Required, the greatest common divisor of 1633, 3763, 4757, and 4189.

1633)3763	4757	4189	
3266	3266	3266	
<u>497</u>	<u>1491</u>	<u>923</u>	
497=7×71.	Reject 7, not common.		
71)1633	1491	923	
<u>1633</u>	<u>1491</u>	<u>923</u>	Answer, 71.

COMPLEX FRACTIONS.—A Complex Fraction is one which has a fraction or a mixed number for its numerator or denominator, or both: it does not otherwise differ from a simple fraction. All rules applicable to simple fractions are equally applicable to complex fractions. The only principle necessary for the reduction of fractions (changing their form without altering their value) is this: Multiplying or dividing both numerator and denominator of a fraction by the same number does not alter its value. Hence the following Rule for reducing a Complex Fraction to a Simple one:

Multiply both numerator and denominator by any number that will make them both whole numbers. [For examples, see below.]

This will furnish teachers a very simple method of teaching a rule very difficult to explain to young scholars,—the division of one fraction by another. The young mind is eminently logical, and always prefers direct to indirect demonstration, which latter is rarely understood. Every teacher who has labored long and painfully to explain to his scholars *why* we invert the divisor is conscious of, at best, only a partial success. The majority of scholars do not and can not understand why, when told to divide, they invert the divisor and proceed to multiply. It is true that the teacher may have explained that dividing by a number is the same as multiplying by its reciprocal, but the young scholar rarely surmounts the objection that he is multiplying and not dividing. I have avoided all mention of inverting the

divisor, by the following Rule for Dividing a Whole Number, Fraction, or Mixed Number, by a Fraction or Mixed Number :

Place the dividend as the numerator and the divisor as the denominator of a complex fraction, and then multiply both numerator and denominator by any number that will make them both whole numbers.

Examples.—1. Divide 7 by $\frac{3}{4}$. $\frac{7}{\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{28}{3} = 9\frac{1}{3}$. Multiply both numerator and denominator of the complex fraction by 4.

2. Divide 8 by $2\frac{1}{3}$. $\frac{8}{2\frac{1}{3}} = \frac{24}{7} = 3\frac{3}{7}$.

3. Divide $\frac{2}{3}$ by $\frac{4}{5}$. $\frac{\frac{2}{3}}{\frac{4}{5}} = \frac{10}{12} = \frac{5}{6}$. Multiply both numerator and denominator by 15.

4. Divide $\frac{7}{8}$ by $2\frac{1}{2}$. $\frac{\frac{7}{8}}{2\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{7}{20}$.

5. Divide $2\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{4}{5}$. $\frac{2\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{4}{5}} = \frac{35}{12} = 2\frac{11}{12}$.

6. Divide $4\frac{5}{6}$ by $2\frac{5}{7}$. $\frac{4\frac{5}{6}}{2\frac{5}{7}} = \frac{203}{114} = 1\frac{89}{114}$.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

THE STATE CERTIFICATES.—Early in July will occur the first examination for perpetual certificates of qualification to teach in the public schools of Illinois. The change is one which we have long desired to see, and hail with pleasure. It is a measure for the benefit of really well-qualified teachers, as we see at once; but its remoter effect, and we hope its greatest good result, is to be the creation of a spirit of 'coveting earnestly the best gifts', so that those who desire to be good teachers and to be known as such will press forward to this rank. If this anticipation is realized the influence of the measure will be felt extensively, even if few at first seek the honors of the State Certificate.

The Superintendent's Circular suggests in an admirable manner the proper nature of such an examination. We think very little of examinations almost every where. A school examination is a show, and not often a fair one: we generally keep away from such pretenses, that we may not seem to lend the light of our countenance to the shams. Nor have we any better opinion of what we have seen in higher institutions. The fault is not any intended deception on the part of teachers or pupils, but rather that so little is or can be shown which we want to know. The most that we really learn is the degree of self-possession and readiness of the pupil, and his power of memory, if he is not confused. Now the ordinary examinations of teachers rarely show even as much as this.

Two things beside moral qualifications are necessary to the good teacher — knowledge, and skill to communicate it: the first of these can be shown in an examination which is so conducted as to give the teacher a fair opportunity to show his acquirements; but it is of less importance in the choice of a teacher than the second item, skill to communicate; and by what tests in an examination shall we ascertain these? We confess that accuracy in mere erudition is so far from assuring us of the latter excellence that we are apt to suspect a want of tact and a lack of the power of the judgment which sifts knowledge and selects the essentially important points to be remembered and communicated, when we find extreme accuracy. Few pairs of eyes are both microscopic and telescopic; and we have been rarely more offended and disgusted in school than when we have seen teachers striving to teach their pupils some little point which was unimportant, and from mere mole-sightedness showing themselves unapt to teach. This fault is most glaring in the teaching of History and Geography; but it is no less real in the teaching of Grammar and Mathematics. But apart from this, how can we examine for tact, for power of illustration and exemplification and explanation? We are glad to see that Mr. Bateman's circular recognizes this difficulty so clearly, and that it is to be met, as far as possible, in the State examination. How will you teach your pupil? that is the main question: and it involves potentially the other inquiry — What do you know? Due importance is to be given to successful experience as an evidence of power to teach. We can not but regret, however, that 'this world is given to lying' as Falstaff testifies, so that we can put little confidence in solemnly-attested certificates. Good teachers and intelligent pupils are the only parties that can really judge a teacher: and under ordinary circumstances the testimony of the latter is most reliable. Certificates of directors, trustees and clergymen are too easily granted in good-natured compliance and in utter ignorance of the matter to which they certify. "Mr. Smart and Miss Bright appear well in society, have good characters, and have taught here without much or any complaint; and though we have not visited the schools often, and, when we did, felt awkward, and don't know much of what we saw, it would be a pity to hurt their feelings by declining to give them certificates." And so, too often, they are given. But until we can do better we must make the best of what we have. We are often offended by hearing men and women praised by superficial and hasty observers as good teachers whom we personally know to be undeserving of any such reputation.

The grading of the State certificate, although in practice a difficult matter, is a desirable feature of Mr. Bateman's plan. It will enable any teacher to profit in some degree by any special talent that he may possess or any speciality of learning.

We should have commented upon this matter in the last number of the *Teacher*; but we did not see the circular until some days after we had sent the last copy to the printer: we directed him to reserve space for the circular and delay printing the last sheets of the number until it should have come to hand.

OUR MATHEMATICAL EDITOR, Mr. W. S. Kelly, informs us that his health is so broken that he can no longer continue to favor the readers of the *Teacher* with his labor in that department. For many months he has been suffering with consumption, and was long since obliged to resign his post as principal in one of the schools of Ottawa, and is now forbidden by his physician to exert his mind or to

study his favorite branch, mathematics. That we are very sorry to lose his valuable aid can readily be said; but the possible, and, we fear, probable loss to our State of such a man is greater cause of sorrow. We have never seen Mr. Kelly, but have learned to esteem his abilities and his character by our correspondence.

NATURAL HISTORY SOCIETY.—The meeting of the Illinois Natural History Society, which was to be held on Wednesday, July 3d, has been postponed to Thursday, December 26th,—a time coincident with the meeting of the State Teachers' Association.

RECEIVED.—We have some pamphlets on hand requiring notice, which must, however, still await our opportunity. The School Reports of Chicago, Alton and San Francisco are among them. For some time past the Editor has been unable to bestow his usual amount of labor on the *Teacher*, and in the prevailing and all-absorbing excitement his correspondents have neglected him; but he thinks that the next number will show a table as full and varied as usual; and we hope we may have a greater share of original matter.

BOSTON, MAY 20, 1861.

Editor Illinois Teacher: Permit me to say to your readers that we are making the most complete preparations for the Normal Institute to open on July 4th of this year.

In this Institution we shall prepare ladies and gentlemen to teach Gymnastics in the most thorough manner. The course will consist of one hundred and eight lessons in Gymnastics, and a regular course of lectures upon Anatomy, Physiology, Hygiene, and Gymnastics, by four able Professors. Those who can not attend a full course on the first visit can finish at another time. Let all who desire to know the detail of our plan send for a circular, inclosing a stamp. Please address to

Your Ob't Servant,
DIO LEWIS.

CINCINNATI AID ASSOCIATION.—A charitable association with this title has been organized in Cincinnati for the purpose of relieving destitution there, and has issued a circular explaining in general its plans. It asks a notice from us, because it designs sending out into the country and towns as many of the unemployed poor as it can find good places for; and it asks the aid of the Western States in that measure. Persons desiring hands, whether farmers, mechanics, or manufacturers, may get help and aid a good cause by addressing letters of inquiry to the office of the Cincinnati Aid Association, Isaac J. Allen, Secretary, corner of Plum and Fourth streets. We willingly give the announcement, with our good wishes.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

Query 29 (p. 40). "What philosophical reasons can be given for the tubular formation of the bones of animals of every species, as well as the stalks of numerous species of vegetables?"

Answer.—The special function of bone is to form a solid basis for the other

parts of the system. True, some other purposes are effected at the same time, as protection; for instance, of the brain, spinal cord, lungs, and heart, by the skull, backbone, and ribs; and whenever a special function is best served by a peculiar form, that form is adopted; thus the skull is a dome; the ribs and shoulder-blades flat; the haunch-bones irregular. In fact, then, the question may be limited to the long bones of the limbs, which are formed merely for support and motion, and not for protection.

In the earlier stages of the formation of these bones in the human skeleton they are not tubular: there is no medullary cavity (or marrow-hole). But it becomes afterward important to have the movable frame-work as light as is consistent with strength, and within the smallest space; economy of space and material is desired. The bone is round rather than angular because the necessary material will thus occupy the least space, as is shown by geometry. But why tubular in stead of solid? An incidental advantage is that two surfaces, the outer and the inner, are afforded for the ramification of the nutritive blood-vessels; but the main reason is because thus the greatest strength is secured with the use of the least material.

Take a willow rod with the bark on it and bend it nearly to the point of breaking. Now if you look on the inner side of the curve which it makes, you will see the bark wrinkled so as to show that the material on that side of the rod is compressed. On the exterior of the curve the fibres are stretched; while in the centre of the rod the fibres are neither extended nor compressed; and on both sides of the centre the fibres are but little extended or compressed, and consequently are not much engaged in resisting the force that tends to break the rod. It follows that the rod would be but little weakened if you should take out those fibres; and it would be positively stronger if you could take them out and form them into an additional layer on the outside of the rod; that is, the given amount of material will have greater strength in the tubular form than in the solid form. This is the point which we started to prove; and we need not go further to show what is the limit to the practical application of the principle, or why the cylindrical form was not adopted for Stephenson's Britannia Tubular Bridge. A little reflection will explain.

E. V.

Query 35 (p. 115). "Virtue held back his arm; but a milder form, a younger sister of Virtue's, . . . smiled upon him," etc. How is *Virtue's* parsed?"

Answer.—All grammarians of note refer to instances of the relation of the possessive to the governing word understood: some of them notice the construction as Fowler does, who says, "When the thing possessed is only *one* of a *number* of things belonging to the possessor, both the *possessive case* and *of* are used; as, 'A friend of his brother's', implying that his brother has more friends than one." (p. 523.) In these instances *of* indicates the relation of a part to the whole, and *among* might often be used in stead of it. In the sentence cited in Jehu's query, *Virtue's* is in the possessive limiting *sister* understood, which is the object of *of*: we use the common term, though we think it a poor expression to speak of the object of a preposition.

ED. ILL. TEACHER.

I am acquainted with the modes in which grammarians answer Query 35, but there are instances in which their common explanation of the possessive (properly called the genitive) preceded by *of* is unsatisfactory to me: and I may say the

same of their parsing of *theirs*, *Christ's*, *Freedom's*, and *Fame's*, in the sentences 'Gay hope is theirs'; 'Ye are Christ's'; 'For thou art Freedom's now, and Fame's'. I will venture a suggestion; and I wish that some man learned in the history and philosophy of the English language would tell us whether it is an error. It is a fact that the Saxon genitive, like our possessive, ended in *s*, and that some of these Saxon genitives still survive in our language as adverbs: as in *nowadays*, *needs* (frequently in New Testament: Mat. xviii, 7; Mark xiii, 7; Luke xiv, 18; John iv, 4; and in five other places), *straightways*, *amidships*, etc. This is the explanation of the phrase *a good ways* or *a great ways*, which our grammars call incorrect, saying that *a* can not modify the plural noun *ways*: true, but *ways* in that phrase is the old genitive singular, coming down by tradition from tongue to tongue; and the expression is incorrect indeed, but not for the pedant's reason: it is wrong only as archaisms are wrong. In the Evening Prayer of the Episcopal Church, the 'Prayer for all conditions of men' has the expression 'all those who are any *ways* afflicted': and I am not alone in the opinion that *ways* is there the old genitive singular used adverbially. *Once* is another instance of this genitive used as an adverb, with a change of spelling; and this hints the explanation of the phrase *at once*. So *twice*, *thrice*, *whiles*, *whilst* (made by adding a *t* to *whiles* as our Western people add it to *once*, *twice*, etc.) and *nights* in the expression 'He works *nights*', where *nights* is like *needs* in the passage before cited, a real genitive singular, and not a plural. I will not cite further instances and illustrations, but make my suggestion about *Virtue's* in the query, *mine* in 'this heart of *mine*', and *yours* in 'that head of *yours* is in danger'. Are they not genitives 'governed' by *of*, after the old Saxon fashion, and is it not worth our while to recognize it as a fact that we have a genitive case, as our ancestors had, that may depend upon a preposition?

STEPHEN.

Query 41. (p. 156). *Answer*.—The use of small letters in stead of capitals in titles, as, 'rev.' for 'Rev.', 'mr.' for 'Mr.', etc., arises simply from the scarcity of capitals in the type-case; printers take such liberties in the advertising rather than in the news columns.

EX-TYPO.

Query 42 (p. 156). "What are the distinctive characteristics of a grammar-school?"

Answer.—In England the term is used as defined by Webster, to denote a school where Latin and Greek are taught: Worcester's Quarto says that in the United States it means 'a school next in rank above a primary school and below a high school'. This is a very indefinite description, but that is not the fault of the lexicographer: the various schools so called differ much in their courses of study. Generally, we think they are designed to include scholars who can read with tolerable understanding the Fourth Reader of Sanders's or Sargent's series, or McGuffey's old series, and who are able to study 'Practical Arithmetic', and who are *supposed* to be able to study English Grammar, which is quite a blunder. ED. ILL. T.

Will C. H. L. answer the question of a correspondent respecting Query 39, "What evidence is there that we are less able to resist cold when lying down than when standing or sitting?"

We expect an answer to Query 25 (on 'had better', etc.) from one of our grammatical correspondents in time for the next number.

NEW QUERIES.—Query 43. In what mode is the verb *be* in the following extract? "Blessed be thy advice, and blessed be thou."—1 Samuel, xxv, 32. C. H. L.

Query 44. What is *rolling* in the line "And trunks of trees came rolling down"? C. H. L.

LEGISLATIVE ACTS RELATING TO EDUCATION.

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE DISPOSITION OF SEMINARY LANDS, AND TO INCORPORATE THE ILLINOIS AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of Illinois, represented in the General Assembly*, That J. W. Singleton, Thomas Quick, William A. Hacker, Walter Buchanan, B. C. Renois, Harmon Alexander, Curtis Blakeman, James H. Stipp, and Zadoc Casey, and all such other persons as may become associated with them, are hereby constituted a body corporate, by the name and style of the Illinois Agricultural College, for the purpose of instruction and science in practical and scientific agriculture, and in the mechanical arts.

§ 2. The capital stock of said company shall be fifty thousand dollars, with liberty to increase it to the sum of two hundred thousand dollars, to be divided into shares of one hundred dollars, which shall be considered personal property, and assignable in such manner as said corporation may, by its by-laws, from time to time provide. The capital stock of said corporation shall be exclusively devoted to the purposes named in the first section of this act; and to that end said corporation may acquire, by purchase or otherwise, hold and convey real estate to the amount of its capital.

§ 3. Within ninety days from the passage of this act, the said incorporators shall open a subscription book for said stock, at such times and places as they shall appoint, giving at least fourteen days' previous notice of the same in two or more newspapers in this State. Ten per cent. of the whole amount of the stock taken shall be paid at the time of subscribing, and the balance shall be paid at such time, place and manner as shall be required by the directors of said company.

§ 4. Whenever twenty-five thousand dollars shall have been subscribed, it shall be the duty of said corporators to call a meeting of the stockholders, whose duty it shall be to elect, by ballot, one president and five directors, including the president, and one secretary, who shall be *ex officio* treasurer. Said board of directors shall proceed to organize said corporation, by the adoption of suitable by-laws, by purchasing a farm, on which shall be erected suitable buildings for carrying into effect the objects of said corporation.

§ 5. The stock, property and concerns of said corporation shall be managed by said directors, who shall hold their offices for one year from their election, and until their successors shall have been elected.

§ 6. In employing professors and teachers to impart instruction in practical agriculture and the mechanical arts to the pupils attending said institution, it shall be the duty of said directors to give said pupils an opportunity and to require of them to labor in the field, in the workshop, or in the laboratory, one-half the time, from the first of March to the first of December, to the end that all the pupils may learn the practice of productive industry as well as mental improvement, so useful to every citizen.

§ 7. Said directors, in locating said college and experimental farm, shall be confined to that part of the State south of a line drawn east and west through the centre of the State.

§ 8. That the college and seminary lands of this State be and they are hereby donated to said corporation, with power to lease, sell, dispose of and convey the same, and to receive and collect the money arising therefrom, for the purpose of establishing, improving and carrying on said college and farm.

§ 9. The said institution shall receive annually one student from each county of the State, free of charge for tuition, to be instructed in the science and practice of

scientific agriculture and the mechanical arts: *Provided, however, that said pupils may be expelled for disorderly conduct and insubordination.*

§ 10. Said corporation shall make a full biennial report to the Legislature, when in session, of their financial condition, their progress, the number of pupils received and discharged, stating the residence of each, etc.

§ 11. Said corporation may adopt a common seal; may sue and be sued in any court in this State.

§ 12. *Provided, That no part of the proceeds derived for the sale of the lands herein granted shall be expended in purchasing lands or in the erection of buildings, or for liquidating the debts of any institution to which said funds may be donated, or for expenses of commissioners in locating the institution.*

§ 13. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

APPROVED February 21st, 1861.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

RICKEY, MALLORY & Co.'s CATALOGUE RAISONNÉ. A General and Classified list of the most important Works in Literature and Science published in the United States and England, with a Bibliographical Introduction. Rickey, Mallory & Co. (now Rickey and Carroll), Cincinnati: 12mo. pp. 260. Paper, 20 cents. Cloth, 75 cents.

Next to having a thing in hand is the convenience of knowing where to get it and what to look for. We delight in book-catalogues, and take pains to add to our store of them; for we wish to know something of the character, cost, authorship, and titles, of books which we expect never to own. The above-named book will give any one who is not already well supplied with such knowledge information respecting the proper titles, authorship, size and price of a large number of books (30,000 volumes), such as are most likely to be wanted for public or private libraries. It is arranged according to subjects, as far as possible: some books are so miscellaneous in character that they are hardly classable, and occasionally a mistake creeps in; as when the Biography of Gen. Greene is ranked under *Belles Lettres*, or Stone's Life of Matthias, written 26 years ago, is ranked under *Spiritualism*, an imposture not yet a dozen years old. But no one who has not tried to make a classified list of books or magazine-articles can know how difficult a task it is.

Messrs. Rickey and Carroll are publishers and dealers in books and stationery at Cincinnati, having a large establishment there: they will be glad to send their catalogue to any of our readers for the prices named above, and to furnish them with books beside. We thank them for their catalogue, which we shall find quite useful.

A GUIDE TO HAYTI. Edited by James Redpath. Published by the Haytian Bureau of Emigration, Boston.

This pamphlet of 180 pages is issued to give information respecting the Island of Hayti; its history, geography, natural history, government, society, productions, industry, commerce, religion, etc., etc.

Upon the fall of Soulouque, who had been Emperor (!) of Hayti for some years

and had urged the country toward increasing barbarism with all the power of stupidity and selfishness, a new man came into power as President of the Republic, Fabre Geffrard. He received the office in January, 1859, and seems worthy the name of good omen which he bears, Fabre (Latin *Faber*), a workman, a builder. He has been steadily pushing forward reforms in the administration of government and improvements in every thing which his power can reach. He very early tried to induce immigration of persons of African descent from the United States, and has now an agency for that purpose in Boston, at the head of which is the well-known James Redpath, formerly of Kansas. President Geffrard wants men and women, workers with new ideas and with powers such as colored men of the United States may be expected to bring despite the disadvantages of their position here; and he offers advantages to emigrants of that race if they will but make the rich and beautiful island of Hayti their home and their country.

Since this movement began, the great rebellion has changed the aspect of the slavery-question incalculably. What is to come of it no man can foresee; and in what new position the black man may be placed and with what new prospects none can foretell. Will slavery be abolished in the struggle? Or will it survive, shorn of its vaunted political importance, hated of the nation for its parricidal attempt upon the national life, and destined to an extinction by rapid decay? One or the other of these results is inevitable. And what then shall become of the black man? A leading financial journal, *Thompson's Bank-Note Reporter*, says that the result will be the abolition of slavery and the establishment of a negro-republic under the protection of the United States. If so, the black man will have an opportunity to seek civilization in independence such as few have dared to anticipate: though De Tocqueville in his *Democracy in America* suggested a result similar, thirty years ago.*

At present it seems to us that emigration offers the black man the best opportunity for achieving the destiny of a free man. Whatever the result of the present war, and whatever its effect upon slavery, the same prejudices of race must continue; and it seems hopeless for him to struggle against them. Our school-law in Illinois assigns the colored race a separate education—if they can get any; and all the objects of social and political ambition to which education leads its subject to look are forbidden to him. Whenever we see the faces of colored children looking for knowledge or in contrast with the little ones of our own race, our philanthropy leads us to wish them a separate and an independent career. We can not say that it is best for all of this race who are in our State to go to Hayti; but we have no hesitation in asking our readers who may happen to know any enterprising colored men who desire a better condition than they can have here, or men who can be roused to such an ambition, to call their attention to this project of emigration, and to assist them in entering into correspondence with Mr. Redpath, who will gladly give information and advice. Many advantages and some assistance are offered by the Haytian government. The pamphlet which we notice has been sent to every editor in the country, and we hope that the subject will be brought to the notice of the philanthropic generally, and that good will result to both the races concerned. Mr. Redpath is very zealous in his appeals to the colored men, and very strongly urges the benefits of emigration to them. As educationists, the *Teacher* and its readers can not be without an in-

terest in the solution of the question—What shall be done for a race that now seems doomed to perpetual ignorance and inferiority in the very midst of American civilization?

THE SOUTHERN TEACHER comes to us improved in exterior appearance, with a slip requesting notice, evidently intended mainly for southern newspapers. We shall be glad to see it well sustained at the South, and so far improved in manners as well as in appearance as not to use the abusive slang of political contest toward Northern people. What do our Northern friends say to such an item as this, which we find in the February number as editorial:

MAN HUNG.—An immense assemblage attended the execution last night, says the *Advertiser* of the 12th. The condemned criminal was Abraham Lincoln, and he was effectually hung in effigy. The body had not been cut down when we left; but to all appearances life was extinct. He was hung to a pole around the streets.

In the same Editorial Table the establishment of the Harpers is called a 'Black Republican Abolition establishment'. The editor of the *Southern Teacher* is welcome to any political opinions that may suit him: we in the North are careful to keep our politics out of our educational journals, and hope that the same wise course may some time prevail in our Southern exchanges. When the editor of this *Southern Teacher* wanted to publish a series of Grammars he found a publishing house in 'fanatical' Boston, in 'abolition' Massachusetts, and not in Alabama. From present appearances he is likely to need sympathy and good will North as well as South, ere long.

The foregoing was written for our last number, and unfortunately crowded out: we are sorry that it can not now go to the *Southern Teacher*. We have seen similar notices in some of our exchanges, and hope that when this outrageous rebellion is crushed, Prof. Barton may be able to receive the number with these lines, and that he will meantime have learned better manners.

THE SUNDAY MORNING CHRONICLE, published at Washington, D.C.

We have received a number of this new paper, and at first glance took it to be one of those flashy papers which are so frequently sent us for a notice; but we soon found that it is not 'of that stripe'. We read much of it with interest, including its two columns of scientific matter, and concluded that persons desiring a pleasant non-political Washington paper will like the *Chronicle*. The publishers say for themselves:

The *Chronicle* is published on a large folio sheet, with new type, and contains: 1. A full weekly record of Military and Naval Movements in Washington and throughout the country. 2. Original sketches of New England Celebrities, by an able Northern writer. 3. A series of original sketches of the City of Washington, its Growth, Public Buildings and Attractions. 4. Original sketches of the Churches and Clergy in Washington—an account of one church and its pastor appearing in each issue. 5. Letters from correspondents in all the principal parts of the country. 6. Smithsonian Papers, containing accounts of the more recent discoveries in science, in all parts of the world, as reported at the Smithsonian Institution. 7. Essays, Sketches, Tales, and choice gems of Poetry. 8. A weekly record of Removals and Appointments by the Government. Local Reports, doings in the city, etc. 9. Editorials, by one of the ablest writers in the country. The object of the publishers of the *Chronicle* will ever be to render it a high-toned Metropolitan FAMILY PAPER. The subscription price by mail is \$2 per annum in advance, or \$1 for six months. Three copies, five months, \$2.50. Specimen copies forwarded when desired. Address, inclosing subscription, in gold or par bills, JAMES B. SHERIDAN & Co., Publishers, Washington, D.C.

ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

JULY, 1861.

NUMBER 7.

P U N C T U A T I O N .

Too little attention is given in our grammar schools, high schools, and academies, to the subject of Punctuation. I do not consider a knowledge of punctuation one of the prime necessities of life. A pupil can become a very good and highly useful member of society without the slightest acquaintance with it; and in fact very few of all the excellent, eminent or elegant people that I know or know of have much more acquaintance with it than what directs them to put commas, periods, notes of interrogation, notes of exclamation, dashes, and quotation-marks, in *some* of the places where they are needed. So we may say of all the elegancies of writing; we do not expect any to be versed in them but those to whom there has been leisure and opportunity for the necessary culture; and of such we rightly require them. But every one who learns to read must learn a little of punctuation; and every one who writes even a brief letter should be able so to compose it and point it as to avoid ambiguities and awkwardnesses.

The following sentence from Northend's *Teacher's Assistant* shows how, in a simple statement, a proper use of points may be essential to convey the meaning of the writer. "The persons inside the coach were Mr. Miller a clergyman his son a lawyer Mr. Angelo a foreigner his lady and a little child." I give the sentence without points. Now how many persons were there in the coach? Were there five, six, seven, or eight? The mode of punctuating must determine both the number of persons and the designation of their occupations or relations.

"The persons inside the coach were Mr. Miller¹; a clergyman²; his son³; a lawyer⁴; Mr. Angelo⁵; a foreigner⁶; his lady⁷; and a little child." Here we have listed eight persons; but if we substitute a comma for

have known him as intimately. We were in college together, and for twenty years I was officially associated with him in the administration of that institution with which his name is now imperishably connected. For a great deal of that time there was scarcely a day in which a personal interview did not give me some new proof of his wisdom and goodness.

At the time when the Greek war of independence broke out Dr. Howe was a student of medicine in Boston. Even then his youthful heart was an altar already loaded with incense. The sight of a brave people struggling for liberty kindled that incense into a flame—a flame which has burned uninterruptedly, for Greece, for Poland, for Hungary, for Italy, and for those in this country who are under direr oppression than Greek, or Pole, or Hungarian, or Italian. He flew to Greece, and for six years—a part of the time as a surgeon in the army or on board the fleet; a part of the time as a volunteer, like Lafayette and Kosciusko in our Revolutionary war—he devoted himself to the liberation of that people. He adhered to their cause until he left them free. Then he taught them something of the arts of peace. The first cart made in Greece was made under his superintendence. The old ancestors of that people had made chariots for battle, but not carts for agriculture; and their descendants inherit a sufficient degree of the old organization to shape a graceful boat with a jack-knife, while so little were the useful arts cultivated that they needed instruction in fabricating the most-common utensils of life. The Egyptians had overrun the Peloponnesus, ravaging and destroying all fruit and harvest; and the people were reduced almost to starvation. At that critical moment Dr. Howe returned to this country; preached a crusade through all New England and New York; raised some sixty thousand dollars in money, and an immense quantity of clothing, with which he relieved the mortal necessities of the Greeks, and sustained them until the final hour of triumph. Twenty years after, when he rode alone into Greece on horseback one day, an accidental traveling companion was astonished to see him recognized by a peasant-woman, who spread the glad intelligence; and he was immediately surrounded, and borne into the neighboring city, *nolens volens*, on the shoulders of the people. Such joy was manifested at the sight of him who had founded a village on that spot in the days of stormy trial, that his accidental companion was moved to tears at the spectacle of enthusiasm, even before he knew the details of the history. At that point of time the Greeks were just again triumphant over oppression; and his friends ruled the ascendant, and were glad to do him honor. They also sent a Greek newspaper to his friend Charles Sumner, in which

the incident was related, or probably we should never have had the pleasure of learning it; for Dr. Howe is never the hero of his own story.

To return to his early history. At the time of his return from his Grecian expedition to Boston Dr. John D. Fisher, who had just completed his medical studies in Paris, came home to Boston also, with his great heart filled, brimming, with the project of establishing an Institution for the Blind, like that of the Abbé Haüy, with which he had become familiar in Paris.

In a city so renowned for its charities as Boston the bricks and mortar for such an establishment could easily be obtained; but where could one find the great, organizing, executive mind to be put at its head, and to be its sensorium?

The most-sagacious turned to Dr. Howe as the man above all men for the place; and he was appointed. He accepted, and immediately embarked for Europe to visit the institutions at Paris and elsewhere.

It was while in Paris, on this mission, that his chivalrous spirit prompted him to accept a trust which well-nigh proved fatal, not only to the enterprise in which he was embarked, but to his life. This visit to Paris was during the Polish insurrection of 1830-31. A thrill of enthusiasm in behalf of the Poles, as a few years before in behalf of the Greeks, ran through this country; and large contributions of money and clothing were made in their behalf. These donations were forwarded to Gen. Lafayette in Paris, to be remitted by him to their suffering objects. Gen. Lafayette dispatched two agents (a French and a German officer) with the succors. One of them was taken prisoner by the enemy; the other was balked in his purpose, and returned. Who now had the bravery and the skill to carry the needed relief to the perishing army?

It should be stated here that a large, perhaps the largest, body of the Polish insurgents had just been driven across their frontiers into Prussia. Prussia stipulated that, if they would surrender their arms and dismiss their officers, she would afford them a refuge; but having, for some reasons of state, changed her policy, and become more friendly to Russia, she surrounded the Poles with a cordon of soldiers, and attempted, by starvation on her side of the line, to drive them into the jaws of the Russian bear on the other side. It was at this perilous juncture, when they were guarded by Prussian soldiers on one side and watched by Russian victors on the other, and perishing from want within themselves, that Dr. Howe undertook to carry the needed assistance to this hunted band of patriots. He was then on the point of starting for Berlin to visit the Blind Institution established there

by the Abbé Haüy a quarter of a century before, and he accepted this perilous commission as an episode. As soon as wheels could carry him, he stood within the Polish cantonments—ground consecrated by the presence of patriots, desecrated by the rule of tyrants. The Poles had been quartered among the peasants, and they were scattered over a space a dozen miles in extent. By the terms of capitulation, their officers had been removed. One officer, however, having determined to abide the fortunes of his companions, remained, and, the more securely to cover his concealment, feigned illness, and from his sick-quarters, unknown except by a few trusted ones, all necessary orders were issued. Over this extended space, and among this large number, Dr. Howe began, personally, the distribution of his alms, by traveling from hut to hut, scattering gladness wherever he went. Soon he came to a peasant's rude hut, where he was told there lay, in an upper loft, a dying Pole. He ascended to the apartment, which bore all the evidences of a sick man's chamber—the attendants, the silence, the medical paraphernalia; and, by the dim light from a darkened window, the form of a man was seen prostrate upon a pallet of straw. Dr. Howe explained his errand; assured him that he came as a friend to help, and not as an enemy to betray. Convinced of this, the feigning sick man sprang upon his feet, and stood before him, a tall, gigantic grenadier, ready, as chance might offer, for friendship or for battle—ready for any thing but to live a slave. It was their commander.

The supplies came at a moment when the Polish army was at the point of despair. They were promptly delivered, and joyfully received; and Dr. Howe, having fed the hungry and clothed the naked, started immediately for Berlin to learn how to give eyes to the blind.

Immediately after arriving at Berlin, he accidentally met an American citizen, with whom he exchanged cards, giving, most fortunately, the name of the hotel where he lodged. The next morning that citizen called at the hotel and inquired for Dr. Howe, but was told that no such person was or had been there. Appearances, however, excited suspicion; and, by adroit and persevering inquiries, this gentleman found that a body of the police had visited the house during the night: but Dr. Howe, for six weeks, was no where to be found by any friendly inquirer—no where to be seen by any friendly eye. The facts were that no sooner had Dr. Howe distributed his succors among the Poles than they were changed as from dead men to live ones. A new soul had been created within them, and all indications pointed to him as to the creator. Now let us see what has been the fortune of the moral hero.

In Prussia every traveler must go from place to place by public conveyance. All public stages are there truly public ones; for they are owned and driven by the government. However urgent one's business may be, whatever emergency may arise, no private man, with private horses or private carriage, is allowed to help one on one's way. The government, for police purposes, transacts all this business. They register the name of every passenger; note where they take him up, and where they set him down; so that they can tell the outgoing and incoming of every traveler who passes through the kingdom, or moves from place to place in it. Hence the bloodhounds easily tracked Dr. Howe from the camp of the Poles to his hotel in Berlin; and at midnight, on the first night of his arrival in the city, they knocked at his chamber-door. On opening it he saw three men. They were clad in citizens' dress, and at first only asked him the news from the camp, and requested his attendance before some civil commissioners. On his declining to go, he was told he must go; and, on his demanding by what authority, the captain of the band unbuttoned and laid open his citizen's coat, and showed the uniform and badge that had all the thunders of the government at its back. He parleyed; and finally, by promising to attend to them in the morning, he gained a respite for a few hours during the residue of the night. Availing himself of this critical period, he selected what valueless and insignificant papers he had, which he tore into shreds, shuffled, and threw into a basin of water; but all his valuable ones, and such as might connect him with the transaction, he hid in the hollow of a bust of the King of Prussia, which is almost universally found in all public rooms and places of resort throughout the realm.

With early dawn reappeared the police, who had watched all night at his door, to conduct him, as they had intimated, to some tribunal or company anxious to hear the news.

Whoever has been in Berlin will remember a vast stone building in one of the most conspicuous streets, nearly in the heart of the city, obtruding its silent horrors upon the sight, and striking with fiercer horrors all the recollections and associations of men. It is the Government Prison, the Bastile of Prussia. There, in a stone room eight feet by six, without fresh air, without light, Dr. Howe was thrust, and there began a night of darkness, equally impervious to the light of day and the light of hope, which lasted six weeks. Of all men and their confederates in the under-world, none but the princes of police and the prince of darkness knew where he was. No communication by letter or speech was allowed—none save that unseen communication with the great Father of us all, which all good men have, and of which no earthly or infernal foe can rob them.

any one of the semicolons except the last, we shall have seven persons : if we remove the first semicolon, we affirm that Mr. Miller was a clergyman ; if the second, we make Mr. Miller the father of the clergyman ; if the third, we make the lawyer the son of the clergyman ; if the fourth, we make Mr. Angelo a lawyer ; if the fifth, we make Mr. Angelo a foreigner ; if the sixth, we make the lady a foreigner. If now we substitute commas for two of the semicolons, for those numbered 1 and 3, 1 and 4, 1 and 5, 1 and 6, 2 and 4, 2 and 5, 2 and 6, 3 and 5, 3 and 6, or 4 and 6, we reduce the number of persons to six, and the relation of the terms will be variously distributed. Let us now substitute commas for the semicolons numbered 1, 3 and 5 ; 1, 3 and 6 ; 2, 4 and 5 ; or 2, 4 and 6 ; and the number of persons is reduced to five. Thus we may have twenty-one arrangements and twenty-one meanings of this apparently simple sentence.

Mr. Northend's book and Mr. Wilson's *Treatise on Punctuation* give other examples, some of which are very amusing ; but this one suits our purpose best, because of its simplicity and the great variety of possible meanings. Instances might be quoted from official papers, from declarations of political or theological sentiments, or from legal enactments, where the insertion, omission or change of location of a comma will materially affect the meaning of the whole sentence. I had occasion lately to decide, upon examination of one of the postal laws of the United States, whether a package which I wished to mail ought to have upon it stamps to the amount of seven cents or of forty-two cents : the use or omission of a comma settled the question, and would have settled it equally if the matter had been one of thousands of dollars in stead of postage-stamps.

Now if the meaning of sentences is determined by punctuation, some understanding of the subject is plainly necessary both to readers and to writers ; and it should be a frequent exercise in reading-classes to point out the application of principles of punctuation, and to show what change of meaning would be made by change of pointing. I am sorry to say that none of our popular Readers are even decently pointed ; and that so little attention is given to the subject of punctuation in our common grammars that they are more likely to mislead than to guide ; and, in consequence, the teacher is compelled, by an enforced ignorance, to neglect the subject, or to study it in some special treatise, and to criticise the school-books with severity. In fact, most persons use no points but commas, periods, interrogations, exclamations, quotations, and dashes ; using the last for colons, semicolons, and parentheses, or making the comma do duty for itself and these other points too. And if the special treatises are resorted to, there is found such

a number of rules, remarks, exceptions, and various illustrations, that the learner is at first confused; and, lacking any general principle, he soon forgets what he learns.

Punctuation is a branch of Grammar, and should have its place as such; and as it is more important than nine-tenths (if not all) of the formal parsing and analysis, it should be allowed to take the place of much of it. The proper use of points can be determined only by an analysis of the sentence, in fact, though it need not be a formal analysis; and the pupil who can point a compound and complex sentence, with compound and complex elements in its structure, knows more of it, though unable to analyze it in formal style, than one who can separate it into all its component parts and classify them in the best style of Greene, Clark, or any other author. And the careful study of punctuation leads to care and accuracy in writing. In my writing I make it a rule never to let a sentence stand which I can not punctuate to suit me: it is certainly awkward and vague if its members and elements can not be shown by pointing. Every one who has any care for the effect of what he writes should hold this rule inflexibly, and for the same reason. Observance of such a rule cultivates simplicity, directness of expression, and accuracy in the structure of sentences; and thus it serves to correct one's writing, to form a good style, and to make effective what is written.

In subsequent articles I purpose to speak of the fundamental principle of Punctuation, and of the general rules for the use of the comma, semicolon, and colon.

SCRIBA.

EVERY MOMENT PRECIOUS.

GOD has created us with a soul to save, a mind to improve, and a body to care for; and each one of these needs time and care for a healthy development. We all have a work—each one a mission that none other can perform. God does not furnish work for us part of our lives only, but for every moment he has something for us to do. Our life here is short at best: a score of years is passed in thoughtless youth; then the active cares and duties of life are thrown upon us, and the moments are few in which we can calmly sit down and call the time our own.

Every particle of gold is valuable; and where the dust of it is han-

dled the sweepings of the floor are saved with care, and amount to quite a sum when the collections of months are taken together. If these particles of earth's dross are worth saving, how much more the particles of time; and if they be well improved, day after day, through a lifetime, what an untold amount of good will be accomplished. Who of us do not have, now and then, odd moments (few they may be), which fall to our lot, to be spent as we wish? and if we are desirous and watchful, we may redeem many of these from being lost. We need to have some work always ready for these moments; then when they come grasp them with energy, and stamp each one, as it passes, with the words 'well improved'.

Our lives are made up of moments, and we can only be sure of living and improving the present one: still, how prone we are to postpone studies, and other known duties, which we feel should be attended to *now*, for some future time—some vacation, long winter evenings, or some period when we think we shall have less to do.

We all know, practically, that when we have a surplus of money on hand we are apt to let a trifle slip here, and a trifle there, for some article not needed, satisfying ourselves by saying it is only a little; but when we count up the littles we find that quite a sum has been spent. The same principle will apply to our letting small moments slip away unimproved. We have a mind, the great storehouse of knowledge, which neither the days of our youth nor a complete college course are sufficient to fill, so that we may draw from it the rest of our lives (as some seem to think); but we need to be continually drawing from it and pouring in fresh supplies, or else the whole will become stale and useless.

We are continually hearing the complaint of not having time as an excuse for neglecting known duties. In some cases this may be valid; but we venture to say that in nine cases out of ten it is a worthless excuse. Will more time be given us when we are wasting some of its precious moments? If we have the calling of a teacher, we shall have sufficient time to fit ourselves well if we but improve it *all*. Many of us spend much time in conversation which could be more usefully occupied; and we *feel* it as some known duty presses upon us, but we often lack decision to withdraw. And here is an argument against the practice of *boarding around*: not but that it is pleasant and profitable, but we can not afford to spend so much time in conversation; we need much time to ourselves, to cultivate our minds.

When we lie down at night we should feel that we do so not for pleasure, or to kill time, but that we may gain new strength and energy, to prepare us for duties and labors that await us. By improv-

ing every moment of time we, to all practical purposes, live a longer life. Locke says, "We get the idea of time, or duration, by reflecting upon that train of ideas which succeed one another in our minds": then he who thinks and acts the most lives the longest.

If at the close of life all the time we waste were to be collected and taken from our life, how much it would shorten it. Some live but a short life, although they die in old age: others die young, still they have lived long. How pleasant it would be at the close of life to feel that we had improved it *all*.

E. B. W.

A I E I I E E

MR. EDITOR: I'm a schoolman and it six weeks experience, and therefore, as *usual*, am I not entitled to the floor in this Teachers' Journal? You must know that for a long time it has been the habit of my ambition to keep school: and I've spent long twilight hours, and some wakeful midnight ones, in conjuring up visions of my future life as connected with the school-room.

What a school mine should be. What order and discipline: what rows of caps in the boys' entry, and skaters in the girls': what piles of neatly-covered books, and bending over them what orange-eyes, and rosy cheeks, and curly heads: and what perfect docilities: never a failure, never even a misquoted word: they should be *thoroughly* magic, whatever else they were. And then, too, what a teacher: sitting firm behind the desk, with immediate solar and moon-silk upon, dispensing smiles, or it might be occasionally a frown, the children should all look up to her with perfect love and reverence. She would need but speak, to be obeyed: and they would all catch the words of wisdom as they fell from her lips, and grow wise thereby.

The rule should be a rule of love. Of course, wrongs would some times have to be administered. Children were not perfect. This much I knew, although I had never been so fortunate as to have younger brothers and sisters to teach me to me. But the remembrance of those rugged nephews, who were at once the blemish and the zest of my semi-annual visits to Y., put an eternal streak upon all visions of my future school which made it a perfect Elysium. Offences, then, must needs come, and I must provide for them. It might even be necessary to keep a naughty boy after school for some misdeed: and then how

pathetically I would exhort him to turn from his evil ways. At first he might be stubborn; but as I went on to talk his eye would grow moist, his lips quiver, and at last he would burst into tears, and, if he was n't a very big boy, would throw his arms around my neck and entreat my forgiveness; and then (if, as before) I would kiss him and send him home forgiven, and for all time thereafter he would be a model pupil. And I could almost feel the tears coursing down my cheeks at thought of the affecting scene.

O, how earnestly would I strive to guide their tender minds aright: and in after years, when I should be old and gray-headed, how would they come thronging around my pathway to thank me for my early teachings. Yes, mine should be a model school.

Well, last winter I began to think that my attainments in literature, science and art might warrant the realizing of these aspirations. I could explain the least common multiple and the greatest common divisor, could parse a compound relative pronoun, and looked with profound pity upon those unlettered persons who would persist in saying 'I done it' and 'it was me', and was prepared to go forth in the spirit of a reformer, and if need be of a martyr, in contending against 'case', and 'mode'. I could tell all the rivers of America in their order, beginning at Kwichpak and coming back to Kwichpak again. And, as a finishing stroke to all these accomplishments, I attended a two-weeks session of the Institute at D. There I learned very many of the duties and responsibilities of a teacher that I did not know before, and I had my head stowed full of the best methods of teaching Geography, Grammar, and Arithmetic, together with a full analysis of each subject; and what I had n't in my head I carried neatly written out in my Institute note-book, which I resolved should be my constant companion, my counselor in every time of need.

I learned, too, how the eye and the ear are the most direct avenues to the mind, and how 'object lessons' could be made both pleasant and profitable to the young pupil, and how the art of breathing, which is so little understood, should be taught and practiced.

It was n't in the nature of things that all these qualifications should long lack a proper field for their exercise; and so it came about that I was engaged to teach a district school in M.

The Monday morning came upon which I was to begin my labors—a lowery, cloudy day; but what cared I? My heart was brimful of enthusiasm and eager to begin my life-work. I must confess, however, to a feeling of disappointment, and a down-tumbling of one of my castles-in-the-air, as the low-roofed brown school-house first broke upon my sight. A nearer view showed evident marks of its not having been

very gently dealt with by time, or weather, or boys' jack-knives; and the narrow path which led to it, through chips and brush and sticks of wood, certainly did not look like an approach to the temple of Minerva.

Resolutely opening the door, down tumbled castle the second, viz., the orderly row of caps and bonnets in the entry; for entry there was none, only a square box of a room, with desks on three sides and the door which I was entering on the fourth; a huge rusty-iron stove, and surrounding it three recitation-benches, two of them minus two legs apiece, consequently considerably declined from a perpendicular; a water-pail, just ready to collapse from long dearth of water; a rusty tin cup (would it be possible ever to lift it to my lips?); a presentable broom; and lastly, suspended by a nail upon the wall, was a birchen rod—I suppose it was birchen, the sceptre of authority which my last winter's predecessor had wielded. Here I was conscious of a terrible crash, several castles following at once, and seeming as if they would bury me in the ruins. But they did not. Recovering from my dismay, I called to mind what I had heard at D., that a teacher should always govern his room and himself before he undertook to govern his school.

So I seized the broom and went to work. It was early—not yet eight o'clock: how much might not be accomplished in an hour! I was soon enveloped in a cloud, not of glory, but of dust. Huge gray spiders were remorselessly dislodged, and their cunningly-wrought fabrics, daintier than the finest silks, were torn and scattered by the ruthless broom. Once I might have felt some movings of pity, or some twinges of conscience, at such wholesale destruction; but not now. I was desperate. Benches were put together, piece to its piece, and made to stand bolt-upright. Occasionally a little mouse peered its bright eyes out of a hole in the corner, as if wondering what the uproar all meant. But steadily the discipline went on. The pail was carried down to a little brook not far away, and left to recover itself; the cup was scoured until it reflected back in frightful caricature the flushed face before it; the rod was broken into a dozen pieces and thrown out of the window, with a few exclamations of pity and contempt for the man who had used it.

Before nine o'clock I looked around upon a meek, subdued school-room, and was ready to welcome the shy little group which soon after entered. And still they came, until they numbered thirty children, of all sizes and ages, from the toddling, lisping child of four, whose bigger sister brought a blanket and a pillow for the little one to go to sleep upon, to the great overgrown boy of fourteen, and the mincing

young lady of seventeen. An incongruous assembly, surely: but were they not my pupils? and was I not their teacher, duly inspected and accredited, and my credentials in my pocket? Summoning all my dignity, I began the duties of the day. Perhaps I was too dignified; for the children were evidently afraid of me. Now I had never fancied myself an ogress quite, and could scarcely conceive it possible that I could inspire fear in any living thing: yet, there was the distressing fact before me, and something must be done to remedy it; so I bethought me of the 'object lessons', knowing they would go as far as any thing in establishing familiarity between us.

A potato was the only thing of a vegetable kind that I was able to procure for my first lesson. When I produced it, one day, they all looked aghast. I must confess, the look of blank astonishment upon their faces disconcerted me not a little. Perhaps, too, the nondescript form and color of the vegetable were against it; for they seemed as afraid of the potato as of me. Only a few faint replies were elicited; and the exercise was concluded, not at all to my satisfaction, but with the promise that we would talk more about it next day.

The next morning, while exercising my reading-class in breathing, articulation, etc., I was called to the door, and there stood a sunburnt man, with his hat under his arm, who announced himself as Mr. B., the father of two of my larger boys. He said his boys had told him how I had a class in potatoes, and he did n't send them to school to learn about potatoes; he wanted them to learn their readin' and writin' and 'rethmetic. I tried to explain; but he would not hear. He could teach them all they wanted to know about potatoes: guessed they'd know enough about them by the time they'd planted and hoed that twenty-acre field; and he wanted I should make them 'tend right up to their learnin', for they could n't come to school all summer.

It was with a sinking heart that I turned again to my duties; but the breathing was suspended, and the 'class in potatoes' excused from reciting for that day. Another time, when we were getting dull and listless, I asked them if they knew how to laugh. There was no response. I told them then that I would teach them. When I say 'ha', you must say 'ha'; when I say 'ha-ha', you must say 'ha-ha'; when I say 'ha-ha-ha', you must say 'ha-ha-ha'. I began, 'Ha': one timid voice responded, 'Ha'. This would never do. I tried again, and again, until as many as a dozen replied, but in voices that sounded as if they came from the tombs. 'Ha-ha': the responses were fewer yet. 'Ha-ha-ha': a dead silence, with those children standing open-mouthed and -eyed, evidently thinking I had gone crazy. The effect was too ludicrous; and I burst into a laugh which, if not scientific, was

at least genuine. This last was infectious, and the school was dismissed as hilarious as even our Prof. of laughing could desire. But the next night, when I came to my boarding-around place, I was solemnly told that the children were not sent to school to learn to laugh, nor to learn to breathe: they knew quite enough about that already. Again I tried to explain; but it was of no use: every thing that was not Grammar, Geography, or Arithmetic, had no place in the school-room.

And so I have gone on for six weeks, giving way before some of their prejudices, combating others, and trying to soften others. But this short experience has shown me that school-teaching is not all a flowery road. With all my care, failures in recitation will occur almost daily. Pathetic exhortations do not always avail with naughty boys. I am conscious of a daily-increasing respect for my predecessor of the birchen rod, and have thought regretfully, more than once, of my haste and over-zeal in destroying that emblem of his authority.

Weary and dispirited, I go to my boarding-place, and smile with contempt at the foolish fancies I indulged so short a time ago. Yes: six weeks have made me a wiser as well as a sadder——schoolma'am.

Cor. Mich. Jour. of Educ.

CONVERSATIONS WITH AN OLD SCHOOLMASTER.

METHOD IN RECITATIONS.—I met my friend Erastus again, yesterday, and immediately called his attention to a fact that had been overlooked by us in our last conversation: namely, that, while we are looking at specific ends in our studies and teachings, we are in danger of making one-sided scholars. "For," said I, "is there not a tendency in all earnest devotedness to one trade, or pursuit, to produce a habit very favorable to excellence in that special department, and just as unfavorable to another?"

"Partially so," said he, "though not entirely so. For example: If a man works at chopping wood for a whole day in succession, he is acquiring a tendency which will unfit him for sawing. But we shall make a great mistake if we reason very strongly about our mental habits from our bodily ones. In most of the mental operations the whole mind works; while in many bodily labors only a small portion of the body works. Thus in sewing, the fingers, the hand and the arm alone really work; the rest of the body, saving the nerves of motion from the brain and the muscles of the shoulder and side, is almost passive.

So in walking, the feet and legs are in motion, and truly work; but the chest and the shoulders scarcely act at all. And the case is still more clearly one of entire inactivity when these motions of the body or these exercises are of that habitual sort which come at length to be performed almost involuntarily. Not exactly so the mind. Its every power more readily sympathizes with all the others, and when one works all are more or less interested; and hence our great object in study is to put the pupil upon such studies, and to compel him to work in such a way, as to employ the greatest number of the mental faculties, and that in such a manner as shall give to them all both agility and power of endurance."

"What do you mean?" said I.

"Why, simply, that we want the whole mind and soul to work with vigor and precision, and thus to habituate itself to all such labors as it will be obliged in future life to perform: and hence it was that I said, Probably the memory is better cultivated by paying no attention to it specially, but requiring it to work in gathering and retaining materials for the use of the other faculties; just as the hand is made skillful not so much by any manipulations specially designed to produce suppleness as by patient attention to the various works which it ought to perform."

"Then", said I, "I am afraid that we teachers talk too much, and do not give our pupils opportunities enough to work for themselves."

"You are partly right, and partly wrong", said he. "We do not always give our scholars chances enough for invention, comparison, thinking, or judging, or, indeed, for any thing but memory. Yet I think, as you intended to be understood, you are more wrong than right. If the object of teaching is simply and solely to train and discipline the mind, to make it ready to do its own work and to do it rapidly, to go through a given course of calculating or thinking in a given way,—then we certainly do talk too much by far; but if the young pupil needs information, then, probably, we do not talk too much, nor enough. Almost all the facts that we acquire, in our older as well as in our younger days, we obtain by means of testimony—that is, from reading books, or from conversation with our fellow men; and the young mind especially needs information as the basis for all its drills and disciplinary movements: hence I hold that a teacher can not communicate too much information to a scholar."

"Agreed." said I. "And there is Sam Panticost, who is continually talking to his scholars, from morning till night, telling stories, answering questions, reading books, and giving new rules and explanations: Sam is right, then, is he?"

"You are sharp to-night," said he. "But Sam is not right; for he talks without method or aim. He never knows, when he goes to a recitation, what he is to do or say; and hence he never does the proper thing at the proper time. When he hears a class in geography, an accident may send him off to give you the history of any of the sciences, or a dissertation on war and architecture. A friend called at his school a week since, and gave me a little account of his operations. 'Tell me;' said I, 'for I'll warrant they were both useful and amusing.'

" 'More amusing than useful, I imagine,' said he. 'Well, Sam was hearing a class in geography. Arabia was the first country of the lesson; and he asked one question—How is Arabia bounded? When the scholar could not bound it, Panticost remarked that its boundaries had always been quite indefinite, and indeed that it had never been united under one nationality. Notwithstanding, its people (or peoples originating there) had exerted a large influence upon both the literary and political fortunes of the world. 'For instance,' said he, 'by the people who roamed over the sands of Arabia the greatest impetus was given to the science of mathematics, by the invention of the decimal notation.' He then went on to explain how the decimal ratio was a wonderful contrivance for saving mental labor, and how it would have been better if they had struck upon the duodecimal system. All this was illustrated upon the blackboard, but in a manner so loose and irregular that the beauty, the force, and information, were completely lost. The geography-lesson was interrupted and spoiled; the lecture on the decimal and duodecimal systems was bunglingly done and good for nothing; the whole time was thrown away; and finally the minds of the scholars were not in a condition to receive what was communicated, and all was lost. But the worst of it has not yet been stated. The whole school was compelled to listen to something novel, and hence they could not study. So bad habits were formed and fixed upon the teacher and pupils, by failing to have a place for his work and to do the work at that time and place.' Now some teachers are everlastingly talking to their pupils, but just in this random, slipshod, illogical way, without order, and with worse than damage to every body who is obliged to hear."

"But this is very amusing to the classes," said I. "And he is said to be always giving his scholars new facts, and he keeps them posted as to the news of the day."

"Very likely," said Erastus. "But he does not do any thing for the sake of discipline: every thing is thrown into heaps, or, as it is called when speaking of rubbish, it is 'shot' out of his mind toward the minds of his pupils—as if the only purpose of knowledge or facts

was to fill up a space which would be either empty or below the common level; and as in cities all manner of offal and rubbish is shot into such depressed places without order or care, and there lies steaming and fermenting, so every fact which Sam finds is shot without thought at his scholars. Sam has absolutely no system about his recitations. He does, indeed, have their time fixed and settled unalterably. As in the case named, in the hour for geography-recitation he gave a lecture on the abstrusities of some parts of mathematics. On another occasion, when he ought to have given the class a drill on grammar, particularly on parsing according to the rules of syntax, he went on—led away by a particular sentence that came up for analysis—to give a lecture on geology. I myself heard him once, in a class on chemistry, give a fine disquisition on disinterested benevolence.”

“You are critical,” said I. “Would you always have the teacher confine himself to the topic on hand, and to say nothing else?”

“Very nearly,” said he. “At all events, a teacher should be certain beforehand what course he is to take and how he will pursue it. For I do hold that every recitation should consist of two parts—the book ideas, divisions, and arrangements, and the teacher’s comments and explanations; but all these must be made into one complete whole, not be made to cross and derange and neutralize each other.”

“You would insist on having a teacher closely confined to the exact lessons in the book, and to the exact words, too—would you?” inquired I.

“And what”, said he, “would you think of me if I should answer both yes and no?”

“I should of course think you very crafty, not to say inconsistent.”

“And have you never yet learned”, said he in reply, “that every question of this sort must, by the very philosophy of things, have these two answers?”

“How so? Explain, Erastus.”

“Why, when we do any thing practical, did you never notice that the manner in which the thing shall be done depends much on the use we intend to make of it? For instance, how a farmer will plant and cultivate his field of maize will depend on his decision what he will do with his crop: if he means to raise it for simple fodder, he will probably sow broadcast or in drills, and let it alone without cultivating; but if he means to raise corn for the market, he will plant in hills, and cultivate it carefully. So of his clover crop, and even his timothy: if for pasture-land, he will not mind if they be sown on corn-hills; but if for meadows to be mown for hay, he must be careful to lay the ground down smooth with harrow and roller. And so with

learning or teaching: the process will necessarily be different when different ends are had in view. Thus, if discipline is wanted, if a straight-forward, earnest, persistent habit of thinking and accurate remembering is wanted, then stick to the book—every word, syllable, and letter; if information is to be communicated, then you may follow the other plan, and lecture and instruct, giving facts and explaining them—reviewing and drilling somewhat afterward."

"I think", said I, "that I comprehend you. But can those two be joined, and made into the same system?"

"That is, you want to know if the book-drill and the plan of lecturing can be brought into the same school and combined?"

"Exactly," said I.

"Well," said he, "honestly, I do not think they can be in the same classes to any great extent. The drill, after the information chiefly derived from the text-book, is for the younger minds; the lecture, for those very mature: and it will be a difficult task to bring them together. But we are wandering from the point on which we began, and for which alone I want to talk, for my own profit; for I find that talking over a subject with a friend makes my own ideas clearer than before. This is what I was saying a while ago: that a teacher should always know beforehand exactly what he is to teach, and how, and by what order, he is to teach it; these are the three problems of the successful practice in teaching. A teacher must be able to remove difficulties from the pathways of his pupils at proper times; but, notwithstanding, he should be more skillful to teach the pupils in what manner to remove difficulties for themselves. He should be able to solve hard and knotty problems for his scholars; but he should know better how to stimulate them to solve such problems for themselves. They can only be made able to do this by practical work—not by any ingenuity of their own, but by hard and patient practice and drilling; and if a teacher means to give his scholars any thing else, he must bring it in as a part of the book, not in opposition to it. To do any other way is like bringing an acid and an alkali into contact; they will neutralize each other. But to use the book as the foundation, he must have studied it very carefully, and know how to engraft upon it the further information he would impart."

ROBERT ALLYN, in *Ohio Educational Monthly* for June.

BOOKS.—Without books, God is silent, justice dormant, natural science at a stand, philosophy lame, letters dumb, and all things involved in Cimmerian darkness.

BARTHOLIN.

THERE IS NO SCHOOL TO-DAY.

 BY A SCHOOL-GIRL.

VACATION is here ; there is no school to-day :
 I am glad, I am glad it has come !
 O, the times we shall have in the romp and the play,
 And the blessings of staying at home !
 There is no school to-day !

We may wander beneath the cool spreading shade,
 Or list to the honey-bee's song ;
 Or sport with delight on the green grassy glade,
 Or wander the streamlets along.
 There is no school to-day !

We may visit together the children we love,
 And mingle in innocent mirth ;
 And this whole vacation with spirit improve,
 And spend it for all it is worth.
 There is no school to-day !

Vacation — two months — 't is a very long time :
 I think that the days will move slow,
 Before we all meet as we did 'lang syne',
 And all to the school-room shall go.
 There is no school to-day !

Good things we shall have while vacation shall last,
 And after go gladly to school :
 When the school-day of life for ever is past,
 Who desires to be known as a fool —
 And no school on that day ?

Peoria Union.

BOOKS are the glorious legacies of each age to the future. They are the holiest part of the author's self : they are the statue which he has chiseled with earnest, passionate love, until, Pygmalion-like, his soul has gone out from his ardent, burning glances, and infused the lifeless marble with the warmth and glow of his own spirit. And when we gaze on this statue, when we read these thoughts, we know him more truly than if we had broken bread with him for years. Mich. Jour. of Educ.

JOHN'S NEW ARITHMETIC.

"FATHER, the master says I must have a new Arithmetic, right away."

"A new Arithmetic!" said the Deacon, taking off his spectacles, and raising his eyebrows: "all nonsense. It is n't more than a year since I bought you one, just because the master, who was boarding here, and your mother, and the girls, all set in about it; and so, to keep peace, I had to get it. I would n't give that man his bread-and-butter for all he'd teach my children. I heard he got stuck, last winter, on a sum in Compound Interest: I do n't think that speaks very well for a fellow that's been in college two years. All he cared about was to go to parties, and carry the girls to ride."

"I do not know any thing about that, father. But I want a new Arithmetic. All the class have got one but Charles Swan; and he will have one just as soon as his father gets home. I can not go on with the study if I do not, for Mr. Morris says he shall not have any of the old ones used in school. If you could hear him talk about it, you would think it was all time thrown away to study the old one. But if I can not have one I must tell him so: that is all about it."

Here Mrs. Deacon, who had been busy taking up a stocking, felt a few motherly twinges about her heart: though she always kept a strict eye to economy, said she could n't bear to have John go without the book, if all the rest were going to have one, and told father she thought he had better get him one.

"It's all nonsense, I say, wife, getting so many new books. Only last week I had to buy a geography for Sarah, because something new had been got up; and ever since school began Henry has been teasing me for a slate. Now what does *he* want of a slate but to slip down and smash it up? It's nothing but *get, get*, all the time. I do n't see why that teacher ca' n't let well-enough alone. There's nothing the matter with your arithmetic: just as good as it was last winter. It's all a piece of speculation, this changing books so often; and I'm not going to help any body along in it."

"We do n't know as it's always so," replied Mrs. Deacon. "I rather guess it will be as well to get the book as to make any trouble about it. You know there might be a good deal of talk about it if he did n't have one. I should n't want any body to think hard of you, or that you do n't do as well by your boys as any body does. It would n't be true, if they did; but people will talk, whether they have rea-

son to or not. You can take some of that money you gave me to buy a cap with; I'm in no hurry for a new one. How much does it cost, John?"

"I do not remember exactly: seventy-five cents, I believe."

"O, I've got money enough, wife; but I do n't want to spend it foolishly. It's the principle of the thing I look at. It is n't right to throw money away, you know: and I believe this changing books so often is a foolish outlay. Beside, it only makes the scholars uneasy; and by-and-by, if they do n't get along just so with every thing, they'll think it's all in the book, and want something new. Now I think they can learn just as much in the old ones as in the new ones. There's another thing I do n't like very well: every time school begins there's some new thing to be studied. Now I do n't believe in children's trying to know so much: they do n't get hold of any thing right. Why do n't they study a book till they finish it? then there would be some sense in getting a new one."

"That's just my opinion about it," said Mrs. Deacon. "I never could see the use of John's having that new History before he was half through with his old one. I know they are all hurried along too fast. Harriet told me this morning she did n't want to go to school any longer, because the teacher gave such long lessons she could n't keep up with her class. In this way, none of them will know what they have been about by next summer. But what can we do about it, but just let them go on? If we should say any thing, they would only tell us we were old-fashioned and did n't know any thing about it. That's just what my sister Hannah said, when she was out here last summer. When she told me how many studies her girls had, I told her I did n't want my children to spend their time so. She said times were very different now from what they were when we were young."

"That's very true, wife; but I believe they are no better. What boys and girls knew then they knew: there was no hurrying from one book to another without being sure of any thing. Why, the last winter I went to school I think I could do every sum in old Walsh's Arithmetic, and had a pretty good knowledge of Morse's Geography, too; but as for parsing, I could n't say much about it—for grammar always came hard to me, so I let that go for something I liked better. You see, there was no such thing as going from one book to another, because we had n't the books for it; so we had to stick to one thing till we were sure of it. But now, it seems to me, all that's thought of is to hurry scholars along as fast as possible, and to change their books, thinking they are going to better themselves. But all we can say won't amount to much."

You are about half right, Deacon; but I think, with Mrs. Deacon, that you had better buy the Arithmetic for John, for he will not do much if he thinks you are not sufficiently interested in his progress to get what is thought to be the best book. Seventy-five cents is n't much out of your pocket: you will never miss it, and will feel a great deal better for gratifying your boy. It will not be money thrown away to keep him in his class. Whether the old Arithmetic or the new is best we will not attempt to decide. I hope you will not be obliged to get another until this is thoroughly understood. There is too much of this throwing old books aside for new ones, while the most the scholar gains is a habit of superficial study.

Perhaps, Deacon, you may be a little in fault, without knowing it. You want your children to make as much as they can of their time; so, to please you, he hurries them along, farther, perhaps, than they have the ability to go, while, all the time, he may know it would be better for them to have shorter lessons and spend more time upon them. Then you might say the teacher did n't know much, because they were kept back; all the time reviewing; never would get ahead; might as well stay at home. Therefore, you must not blame him altogether if he calls too often for new books. But, to obviate this difficulty, you had better recommend at the next town-meeting that the school-committee be instructed not to allow these frequent changes of books without improvement.

N. A. Y., in Maine Teacher for March.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

PROBLEMS.—I. If 12 oxen will eat $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres of grass in 4 weeks, with all that grows during that time, and 21 oxen will eat 10 acres in 9 weeks, with all that grows in that time, how many oxen would eat 24 acres, with the growth, in 18 weeks, the grass all the time growing uniformly?

II. A man in Wisconsin bought a house for \$2200, agreeing to pay for it in 10 equal annual payments, *simple interest payable annually*, at the rate of 10 per cent. per annum. How much ought his annual payments to be in order that principal and interest shall be paid at the end of the given time?

III. I have a box the sum of whose length, breadth and height is 9 feet. It will hold 24 cubic feet of grain, and a line extending from one of the lower corners to the opposite upper corner is of the same

length as the side of my garden, which is a square and contains 29 square feet. Required, the dimensions of the box.

IV. Two trees, A and B, of an equal height, stand in a horizontal plain. From a point C, equally distant from A and B, and directly south of B, I measured exactly west 400 yards, when it appeared that I was just $116\frac{2}{3}$ yards south of A. At a point D, equally distant from A, B, and C, there stands a tower $175\frac{2}{3}$ feet high. A line extending from the base of the tower to the top of one of the trees, thence to the foot of the other tree, and from these to the top of the tower, is $1034\frac{8}{9}$ yards in length. Required, the height of each tree.

V. Given, $\frac{49x^2}{4} + \frac{48}{x^2} - 49 = 9 + \frac{6}{x}$, to find the value of x .

VI. Given, $\frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{17x^3}{4} - 17x = 8$, to find the value of x .

VII. A golden vessel of cylindrical form and of a given capacity is to be manufactured. Required, to find the relation necessarily existing between the height of the vessel and the radius of the base, so that the surface of the cylinder shall be a minimum: in other words, that the vessel may be manufactured at the least expense. G.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

READING IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS.—We found in a recent newspaper the statement that “Mr. Morris, an inspector of schools, in his report this year says that in not more than twenty out of one hundred English schools he had officially visited had he found a first class able to read a newspaper at sight.” Is it much better in American grammar schools? We fear not: and we think that a great reform is needed in the teaching of reading in our schools.

“HABITS AND MANNERS”—Some editors have a bad *habit* of using the labors of others without acknowledgment; and such are guilty of bad *manners*, to say the least. We selected last month an article with the above title, which we carefully credited to the educational journal in which we found it, apparently original—the *Normal*, of Indiana. We are now reminded that it first appeared in the January number of the *Conn. Common-School Journal*; and while we can commend the good taste of the *Normal* in the matter of selection, we hope it will get the better habit of acknowledging its indebtedness. Some others that we could name need the same lesson.

MATHEMATICAL.—We are glad to announce that Mr. S. A. Briggs, of the Moseley School, Chicago, will hereafter have charge of the mathematical pages of the *Teacher*, and that he has prepared matter for this number.

EATON'S PRIMARY ARITHMETIC, a little book which we commended in a former number of the *Teacher*, is introduced into the Primary Schools of Boston.

DANIEL ADAMS, of Keene, N. H., the author of Adams's Arithmetic, which has been used for three generations at least, is about to issue a revised edition, although in his eightieth year.

Exch.

THE NIAGARA RIVER NAVIGATED.—The little steamer 'Maid of the Mist', which has heretofore plied in the waters at the foot of the great cataract and has carried passengers almost to the face of the wall of falling waters, lately passed down the Niagara river to Lewiston, going safely over the fearful Rapids and the dreaded Whirlpool, losing only her smoke-stack, at a time when the spectators thought she had capsized. No craft of any sort has ever before ventured on this perilous route. The bold navigator was Mr. Robinson, previously famous there for daring feats on the river; and he had two men with him.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This body was to have met in Chicago in August; but the meeting has been postponed till 1862 by direction of its officers.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.—The Thirty-second Annual Meeting of the American Institute of Instruction will be held in Brattleboro, Vt., at the Town Hall, on the 21st, 22d and 23d days of August. The Board of Directors will meet on the 21st, at 11 o'clock A.M. The Public Exercises will be as follows:

Wednesday, August 21st—At 2½ o'clock P.M. the meeting will be organized for the transaction of business. The usual addresses of welcome having been made, the President will deliver his Annual Address; after which the following subject will be discussed: 'How many hours a day ought pupils to be confined in school; and should they be required to prepare lessons at home?' At 3 o'clock P.M., a Lecture by Hon. Anson Smyth, State Commissioner of Schools of Ohio.

Thursday, August 22d.—At 9 o'clock A.M., a Discussion. Subject: 'The Proper Qualifications of Primary-School Teachers'. At 11 o'clock A.M., a Lecture by H. E. Sawyer, Esq., Principal of High School, Concord, N. H. At 2½ o'clock P.M., a Lecture by Lewis B. Monroe, Esq. Subject: 'The Human Voice'. At 3½ o'clock P.M., a Discussion. Subject: 'Methods of Teaching Elocution and Reading'. At 8 o'clock P.M., a Lecture by Calvin Pease, D.D., President of Vermont University.

Friday, August 23d.—At 9 o'clock A.M., a Discussion. Subject: 'Universal Education the Great Safeguard of a Republican Government'. At 11 o'clock A.M., a Lecture by D. G. Moore, Esq., Principal of Public School in Rutland, Vt. At 2 o'clock P.M., a Lecture by T. D. Adams, Esq., Principal of High School, Newton, Mass. At 8 o'clock P.M., a Lecture by Prof. Edward North, of Hamilton College, N. Y. Subject: 'The Titillation of Amusements'.

Ladies attending the meeting will be welcomed to the hospitalities of the citizens of Brattleboro. Those who purpose to be present will greatly oblige the Committee of Reception, and will avoid personal inconvenience, by sending their names, as early as possible, to Hiram Orcutt, Esq., West-Brattleboro, Vt., or to the Secretary, West-Newton, Mass.

It is expected that the usual reduction of fares on the several railroads will be made, of which due notice will be given in the newspapers.

WM. E. SHIELDON, Recording Secretary.

WEST-NEWTON, June 12, 1861.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

COMMENCEMENT AT NORMAL.—The regular day for the Commencement at Normal was Friday, July 5th; and all announcements were in accordance with the regular rule of the calendar of the school until the very beginning of commencement-week, when the time was suddenly changed and the closing exercises were brought upon Wednesday. The change at so late an hour was unfortunate, though Wednesday was the best day, had it been chosen soon enough. We heard of persons coming from abroad to attend the exercises who arrived too late. The attendance of persons from abroad was small. Owing to engagement in the State Examination, we were not able to be present at any of the exercises of the occasion except for a single hour on Wednesday afternoon, and are indebted to others for the materials of our report.

The examinations were held on Monday and Tuesday, July 1 and 2. On Tuesday evening the Philadelphian Society had a dedication of their society hall, with music, addresses, and a dialogue by some of the lady members of the society, entitled 'The Unfortunate Quarrel among Uncle Sam's Girls'. The principal address was by B. F. Taylor, of Chicago, in his usual style of over-gandy fancies and sentimentalisms, with little depth of thought or logical connection. Another address, by Mr. Jehu Little, President of the society, recounted the history of the society, and closed with a warm exhortation to its members to diligence in their society work, and with an ardent expression of his earnest wishes for their welfare. The following Dedication Song was from the pen of Miss Esther Sprague, of that society:

DEDICATION SONG.

TUNE—*America.*

COME, brothers, sisters, sing:
Let all our voices ring
In concord sweet.
To dedicate this room,
Our Philadelphian home,
We hither gladly come,
With joyful feet.

To Progress, social Joy,
And Truth without alloy,
This Hall we give
The pleasures tasted here,
With friends to us so near,
Shall yield us memories dear,
While each shall live.

Before we close our song,
We'll greet the coming throng
Who hither move.
As Time new years shall tell,
O! may the numbers swell,
Our name, still proving well,
'Fraternal Love'.

On Wednesday afternoon occurred the graduating exercises, consisting of declamations and reading of essays according to the following

Programme.—The Lord's Prayer. Chant. Railroads: P. E. Walker, Ogle Co. Our Duties to our Profession: E. A. Gove, Lasalle Co. Music—'The Union for Ever'. Chemistry in the Common Schools: J. H. Dutton, Woodford Co. The Good Citizen: Miss Amanda O. Noyes, Pike Co. Pestalozzi and his System: J. Howard Burnham, Cook Co. Music—'Hail to thee, Liberty'. Kindness: Miss Sophie J. Crist, McLean Co. 'England expects every man to do his duty': Henry B. Norton, Ogle Co. Class Song, by the graduating class. Awarding of Diplomas.

By special action of the Board, a diploma was awarded also to Mr. Moses I. Morgan, of DuPage Co., of the section next to the graduating class, evidence of success in teaching being allowed to avail in place of one term's attendance, which would have been principally devoted to the study of Theory and Practice, and to experimental teaching.

As a former teacher in the Normal School, we have the pleasure of personal

acquaintance with all the graduating class; and while friendship for them leads us to express our pleasure in the successful and honorable completion of their course, a just appreciation of their abilities and zeal leads us to anticipate for them careers of usefulness and honor.

On Wednesday evening Dr. Haven, of the Chicago Theological Seminary, delivered the Lecture before the Literary Societies, upon the theme 'Service'. We had not the pleasure of hearing it.

THE EXAMINATION FOR STATE CERTIFICATES.—According to the announcement of the State Superintendent's circular, the first examination for State Certificates took place at the Normal-School building, on the 2d and 3d of July. Few candidates were expected, and some who had signified their intention to be present nevertheless did not attend: five gentlemen and three ladies offered themselves for examination on the first morning. The appointed examiners Messrs. Wm. H. Wells, City Superintendent of Chicago Schools, Wm. M. Baker, Principal of Quincy High School, and Alex. M. Gow, Principal of High School, Dixon, were present; Mr. E.C. Hewett, of the Normal University, being detained from any active share in the examination by his duties in Normal, Dr. Willard, Editor of the *Teacher*, was added to the Board of Examiners. The State Superintendent was frequently but not constantly present, being *ex officio* a member and Secretary of the State Board of Education, who are the Trustees of the Normal University.

The examination was partly written and partly oral. We should not call it *severe*, but it was *thorough*; and in so saying we mean that though not many questions were asked on any of the subjects proposed, and therefore the amount of mental labor required by the examination was not great, the questions were such as to test the knowledge, tact and ability of the candidates. Particularly was this the case with the oral examination. Had there been spectators, they probably would have wondered that harder questions were not asked; for few persons are philosophers enough to know that great feats are not necessary to show great abilities, just as vast masses and large and complicated machines are not necessary to illustrate the laws and forces of nature. Success or failure in simple things are evidences sufficient of both knowledge and ability.

A certain line of examination was indicated in the Circular, and certain branches not belonging to a common-school course of study were made indispensable for the examination. Some of the candidates had not heeded this requirement, and of course were unsuccessful. The Examiners unanimously recommended to the State Superintendent for the honor of the State Diploma the following gentlemen and ladies, who had shown themselves to possess 'eminent qualifications and distinguished success' as teachers:

Mr. James H. Blodgett, of Amboy; Mr. John E. Pettengill, of Quincy; Mr. Alfred Comings, of Dawson, Sangamon Co.; Miss Marilla M. Towle, of Waukegan; and Miss Florence K. Holden, of Lincoln.

J. H. B., writing for the *Prairie Farmer*, says: "The results of the incipient movement were deemed satisfactory and encouraging. The details of arrangement for examination require judicious planning; and the success of the movement depends now almost wholly upon the course of the Superintendent in regard to the next examination. If that is satisfactory to the other teachers, numbers will take out State Certificates; and permanent form will be given to the move-

ment. The experience of the opening will suggest the matters that need to be modified."

Mr. Bateman has the question under consideration whether it is expedient to have two examinations in each year: one at the Normal Anniversary and the other about the meeting of the State Teachers' Association.

ILLINOIS NATURAL-HISTORY SOCIETY.—An attempt was made to postpone the annual meeting of this society; but it was found that the constitution and the Act of Incorporation made it necessary that the members present should transact the regular business of the Society. The meeting was accordingly held on July 3d, but with a small attendance. The old officers were reelected: J. B. Turner, *President*; C. D. Wilber, *Secretary*, Bloomington; Richard H. Holder, of Bloomington, *Treasurer and Curator*; Ira Moore, *Librarian*. The formerly-existing Executive Committee was abolished; and J. T. Ely, of Chicago, was elected Trustee, in place of J. W. Powell, of Wheaton, who has gone to the war. Mr. Wilber is continued as agent of the Society, with a salary of \$500: he is authorized to collect money for the Society, to receive members, to accept donations of collections and of specimens, and generally to do as he has done hitherto—forward the interests of the Society and represent it as Agent.

The specimens in the Museum of the Society belonged to individuals, and the Society really owned but a small part of what was then adorning its shelves. Dr. Vesey (of McHenry) had given 1800 specimens of the flora of Illinois: Dr. Mead, of Hancock, a botanical collection of 500 specimens; Dr. Brendel, of Peoria, a collection of specimens of woods of Illinois; and A. W. Nason, of the Illinois-Central Coal-Mines, at St. Johns, had given a collection of specimens of over 100 species of fossil ferns of the carboniferous era. Mr. R. H. Holder at this meeting gave his beautiful collection of 400 mounted birds; Mr. Wilber, his collection of minerals and fossils, thousands in number; Mr. Julian E. Bryant, several fine paintings of western and other scenery, illustrating the subject of geology; and Rev. H. J. Eddy, of Bloomington, gave over 1000 specimens collected principally from the drift in the vicinity of Bloomington, including some 30 or 40 fine corals. All these collections are the result of much labor, and are very valuable.

The next meeting will be at Bloomington next Christmas, at the time of the meeting of the State Teachers' Association: the two bodies will doubtless so arrange their meetings as to afford both members and visitors the full benefit of the sessions of both societies, and we may count upon a large and profitable meeting.

LIVINGSTON COUNTY.—The Teachers' Association held a meeting at Ancona, on June 14th and 15th. The exercises were of the usual character, and present no points of general interest. We learn from the resolutions that they have a good Commissioner in that county, and that the teachers appreciate his zeal. Their last resolution is this:

Resolved, That no secessionist be allowed to teach school north of Mason and Dixon's line.

Aye; and none south of it, too, we hope. When civilization so far gets footing in that land that they will not tar-and-feather any more Yankee schoolmistresses, the secessionists will all have run their course.

The next meeting of the Association is to be at Fairbury, Tuesday, September 20th.

THE DUPAGE COUNTY TEACHERS' INSTITUTE held a two-days session, at Downer's Grove, on the 25th and 26th of April — Horace Barnes presiding. About forty teachers were in attendance. The exercises consisted of Lectures, by Geo. Sherwood, of Chicago; Rev. — Bugbee; and Rev. J. P. Stoddard, of Wheaton: Essay-reading, by Mr. Nickel, Mrs. G. H. Hall, Miss A. Slosson: and Miscellaneous Discussions.

There was a spelling-contest by delegates from several schools in the county, which elicited some interest, and resulted in the passage of resolutions to have two spelling-matches at the Fall Session of the Institute — one by delegates from the schools, the other by the teachers. The prizes are to be copies of Webster's Pictorial Dictionary.

The usual resolutions were passed. All together, the Institute was a creditable affair, compared with the one last October.

The present School Commissioner, Horace Barnes, is a thorough, energetic man, who knows no such word as 'fail': so, look out next fall for a good report from old DuPage.

Our annual meeting is to be at Naperville, the first week in October.

W. SABIN, Secretary.

PEORIA.—We see by the *Union* that a new High-School building has been erected in this city, costing, with its fences, cisterns, etc., nearly \$15,000. It is three stories high, exclusive of the basement: the main building is 37 by 60 feet, and the wings are each 18 by 32 feet; and the whole is finished in excellent style.

SCHOOL REPORTS.

CHICAGO SCHOOL REPORTS, *for the year ending Feb. 1, 1861.*—We briefly acknowledged this pamphlet and gave an extract in a former number.

The report of the President of the Board is principally occupied with a statement of the needs of the schools, and of the progress of the year, which is encouraging.

The Superintendent's report is a very interesting paper, almost entirely occupied with a full delineation of the 'Course of Instruction in the Grammar and Primary Departments', with directions to teachers. Of the latter Mr. Wells says, "I feel some solicitude in presenting them, lest they should receive the least attention from the teachers who have most occasion to study and observe them." Very true: those who have not the native tact to get along with few directions will never become good teachers with many, and will not heed even them.

We are very glad to find here the following words on "*Practicalness in Teaching.*"—Our regular course of study is already sufficiently extended; and yet it is notorious that here, as in other cities and towns, pupils leave the public schools lamentably deficient on a great variety of subjects connected with a sound practical education. It is found impracticable to introduce the study of physiology in the Grammar Divisions, with an additional text-book and a course of daily recitations; and so most of the pupils complete their course without any knowledge of the important functions of the lungs and heart, and the general laws of health. We can not add the study of mineralogy and geology to the course; and pupils

go out from the schools without any satisfactory knowledge of the materials employed in constructing the flagstones on which they walk. We can not introduce natural philosophy; and most of our pupils leave without any definite knowledge of the principle involved in rowing a boat, or even in floating in it. We can not add chemistry; and our pupils leave without being able to explain the rising of a loaf of bread, or the burning of a common fire. And yet, a careful study of the philosophy of education will show that the schools are all this time suffering for the want of a systematic course of oral instruction, exactly suited to supply these important deficiencies."

To meet these difficulties, Mr. Wells proposes a series of oral lessons, occupying fifteen minutes a day, and continued through the entire course of the Grammar Department, which is sufficient to embrace a wide range of practical exercises in common philosophy and common things. In the Primary Divisions he introduces Object Lessons: he says that many teachers already devote considerable time to lessons of that sort, though with such vague ideas of what is to be done that they really effect but little. He hopes better results when suitable books for guidance of teachers can be had.

The elaborate course of study is a valuable one, and testifies to the energy of the Superintendent and the ability of the teachers. We shall borrow a page or two from it soon.

Mr. Howland, Principal of the High School, gives a brief report of his department. He thinks that the complaint of over-study has now little foundation in fact. We hope so; and yet we can hardly allow that he is a proper judge on that question. The teacher, the parent, and the physician, are three parties that look at the matter with different eyes. We happen to be physician and parent as well as teacher, and sorrowfully confess that we did mischief as teacher by pushing our scholars on, and knew it not. And we here record our conviction that almost all our High Schools, Academies, Colleges, etc., and particularly our High Schools and Academies that use any system of recording recitations, are doing hurt to their pupils. Why we think so, and how the mischief is done, we will tell at some other time. We fear that our Normal Schools, which should give better guidance, are the chiefest of sinners.

Mr. Howland wisely suggests that a reasonable time should be taken for study, and when that is spent that the study cease, whether lessons are learned or not. He disapproves study by lamp-light in the morning, and urges the great importance of seasonable, healthful sleep.

WARSAW SCHOOL REPORT, *for the year ending April 9, 1861.*—We learn from the report of Mr. C. H. Case, Superintendent, that the present system of schools in Warsaw was adopted three years ago, and is in successful operation, with a High School, Grammar School, Secondary and four Primary Schools, employing two male and eight female teachers. The whole number of pupils registered for the year was 371, distributed thus: High School, 47; Grammar, 50; Secondary, 55; Primaries, 58, 60, 68, 33. The average number belonging in the High School was but 29. Total expenditures for direct school expenses, \$2591.10. Highest salary, monthly, \$70; lowest, \$18; average, \$35.

Mr. Case's Report is an admirable document for home circulation; and we believe that in its effect upon the minds of his constituents, the people of Warsaw,

he will be rewarded for whatever labor he has spent upon it. The greatest difficulty in the way of our schools is the want of knowledge on the part of the people as to what schools should be, and what they should do to help toward improving them. The reports of our City Superintendents all over the State are educators of great power in the very point where most is needed.

The Board of Education adopted some stringent rules, which are reported as working well. A pupil absent or tardy six times during any term, unless in case of sickness or domestic affliction, was suspended until readmitted by certificate from the City Superintendent; and that officer could grant but one certificate in any term except upon order of the Board.

Mr. Case has no sympathy with the sentimentalism that is striving to banish corporal punishment from our schools, and which results in creating anarchy. Children need government as much as they need instruction. "Few parents," says Mr. Case, "as well as few teachers, have the ability to manage children without the use of the rod; and we doubt the practicability of substituting any candy or sugar-plum government for that which is sanctioned by Holy Writ, and has for its motto 'Spare the rod, and spoil the child.'"

We commend the following to all readers:

"The Power of Communicating Thought.—There is no doubt but the cultivation of the power of communicating thoughts to others is sadly neglected in all systems of instruction. They are adapted to store and strengthen the mind with truth more than they are to develop the faculty of expression. Men generally, perhaps, lack the power of communicating knowledge more than they lack knowledge itself. There should be a systematic course, extending through all grades of instruction, to unfold and improve this faculty. This might be done without adding any additional topic to the course of study. It might be introduced in the lower grade in connection with object lessons. After the 'object' has been examined carefully, let the teacher call upon John to rise and tell all he knows about it. By so doing the young tyro is learning to declaim, extemporize, and communicate his knowledge. Or, it may be done in connection with reading, by calling on a pupil to give the substance of the lesson or paragraph just read, in his own language, the teacher correcting errors and assisting him in the right use of the English language.

"The teacher, in every branch of study, should make it a *point* to secure accuracy and propriety in language from the scholar: not by forcing him into the rote system of memorizing the language of the text-book, which so completely sacrifices the spirit to the letter, but by constantly training him into the *habit* of clothing his thoughts in proper language, so that it becomes unnatural for him to do otherwise.

"The above method seems to be a more philosophical way of teaching the practical applications of the highly abstract science of grammar than the methods usually pursued."

[Notices of the School Reports of Alton and San Francisco, and of the Report of the Illinois Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, prepared for this number of the *Teacher*, are unavoidably deferred until our next issue.]

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

WILLSON'S FIFTH READER. (Harper's School and Family Series.) 12mo. pp. 540. \$1.

Last July we noticed the first books of this series, the Primer and four Readers, speaking of the plan of the works and of the manner in which Mr. Willson had carried it into execution in the volumes then issued. We take pleasure in announcing the Fifth Reader of the same series, in which the same plan is developed more extensively. We give some analysis of the book.

Part I is Elocutionary. Rules for reading are given, twelve in number, with a few illustrations; and these are followed by discussions of elocutionary rules and principles, in the form of dialogues, followed by additional exercises. We are no friend to reading by rule, and would never allow a pupil to commit a rule; but accepting these rules as analyses of good reading offered as examples for imitative practice and for suggestion, they are instructive and useful; and the whole of this Part I is admirably written and selected. Parts II—XI are classified lessons on the following subjects in order: Herpetology; Human Physiology and Health; Botany; Ichthyology; Civil Architecture; Natural Philosophy; Physical Geography; Chemistry; Geology; and Ancient History prior to the Christian Era. After each Part except the last is a selection of a few lessons of miscellaneous character, including some of the best poetry and prose of the language. We may also say that many of the lessons classed in the several Parts above named are not of the strict scientific character, but are such lessons as are commonly found in other Readers. The lessons on Botany are full of poetical quotations relating to the matters spoken of in the prose: jewels of poesy set on a golden chain of science. The table of authors shows that quotations are made from 186 writers, beside those from anonymous sources. The book is profusely illustrated with the finest of wood-cuts.

The plan of Mr. Willson is to prepare books which shall furnish a sufficient variety of exercises of every kind to serve for instruction in the art of reading and for cultivation of the taste of the pupil, and at the same time to store them with useful knowledge. The series thus far seems to us an admirable success, and worthy of the highest commendation.

We have seen some where an extract from an article in *Blackwood*, which says that scientific readers have always proved failures; that they make neither good readers nor scientific pupils. We have no doubt of that. Science needs study; and the style in which works of science must be written is plain: it is the dry monotone of the intellect. On the other hand, books intended to teach reading must have all kinds of styles, with a predominance of the dramatic, taking that word in its largest sense: dialogue and story must form a large portion of the book; in our opinion, two-thirds of our Readers should be composed of that class of reading. Dramatic pieces stir the feelings; raise the tone from the level line of reason, the monotone of science; and excite to the play of expression by the voice, which indicates feelings that are really roused in the breast of the reader. We wrote 'play of expression': we did not mean 'work of expression', a voluntary effort to obey the lifeless rules of the elocutionist: we meant that, the interest of

the pupil being aroused, the expression of that interest comes forth in the tones of the voice as easily and as naturally as play; spontaneously, and not laboriously. Hence we see at once the necessity of having every article in our school readers such that the attention of the pupil will be arrested and some glow of enthusiasm kindled.

Whatever criticism may be made upon scientific Readers for dullness may be equally made upon much that is in our common school readers; and if the former have not made good readers, neither have the latter. And if any one says that because Scientific Readers have proved to be failures, therefore Willson's Readers will meet the same fate, we think that he has never seen the old Scientific Readers to which allusion is made, and has not examined Willson's. It might as well be argued that, because propelling a wheelbarrow in a cornfield is hard work, therefore a handcar on a railroad will be immovable. These are not 'scientific Readers': they are Readers in which the natural interest of youth in the acquisition of knowledge is turned to advantage, and in which a considerable portion of the great variety of matter is devoted to scientific subjects, which are not treated in the dry style of pure science, but are written of in a style suited to the particular purpose.

And on the subject of the use of scientific works as reading-books, we take pleasure in quoting the following paragraphs from Mrs. Emma Willard's 'Astronomical Geography', wherein she gives her experience as a teacher.

"To read with ease and fluency is a rare accomplishment, and only to be acquired by much practice. And whoever will look back upon his early school-days will find that nothing is more indelibly impressed upon his mind than the words and subjects of his reading-lessons. Following these ideas, the author — an experienced teacher — has laid it down as an axiom that young learners should, in all possible cases, be taught to *read what they study, and to study what they read*. It is a plan which makes the reading-hour answer two important purposes, saving the time both of the instructor and pupil."

"By proposing this method, with a book designed to afford a connected view of an important subject, we do not expect, or desire, to dispense with reading-books in schools. Those are needed for first lessons; and they afford rules and examples for *Rhetorical Reading*. But the teacher whose classes read their studies in the method here laid down will find his pupils prepared to learn rhetorical reading, — as the writing-master who first teaches a good common hand finds his scholars prepared to learn the flourishes of ornamental chirography.

"In the summer of 1840 the author of this work was elected by the freemen of a parish in her native town (Kensington, in Connecticut) to superintend, for a season, their Common Schools. The classes of the five existing schools were examined together at the close of the summer term by Henry Barnard, Esq., State Superintendent of Schools, by the eminent educator to whom this work is dedicated [Prof. Charles Davies], and many others. Mr. Barnard's Report of the results, to the State Legislature, was extensively quoted, and referred to as describing an improved method in education. It was thought wonderful that so much was accomplished in so short a time, especially in the use of language, oral and written; not only in reading naturally and without tiring, but in spelling correctly, and in composing off-hand on subjects given at the time by the examiners. OUR CLASSES HAD STUDIED WHAT THEY READ, AND THEY HAD READ WHAT THEY STUDIED. They read understandingly, and they became familiar with the right spelling of words, and their arrangement in sentences; and thus time was saved for the practice of off-hand composition, and for other purposes."

CALL'S SHORT-HAND SELF-INSTRUCTOR, AND PRACTICAL ARITHMETIC. By Osman Call. Published by J. C. Montgomery, Elmwood, Ill.; and by Osman Call, Walnut Grove, Ill. Printed at the Illinois Teacher office, Peoria. 1861. 12mo. pp. 216. \$1.50.

We do not know whether Illinois has before produced an Arithmetic; certainly, we now have one written, printed, and published, in the Prairie State, and as original as some of our Illinois men. We have from time to time observed in our exchanges notices of Arithmetic-schools under the instruction of Mr. Call, and learn that he has great facility in performing arithmetical operations: to what extent he succeeds in training pupils to like facility we have not heard.

Mr. Call's *Introduction* offers, among the reasons for giving the world a new Arithmetic, the following: "*First*, We claim to have made many very important discoveries and valuable improvements in the art and science of computing numbers by figures, which will make this treatise far superior to all other works extant for all practical business operations." . . . "*Fourthly*, A work is needed the merits of which will entitle it to be received as a *uniform and reliable text-book throughout the world*, for all future time: thereby obviating the necessity of procuring a new book at the commencement of almost every term of school. We flatter ourselves that the merits of this work are such as to entitle it to be received as the *uniform and reliable text-book* needed."

It is not worth while for us to advise Mr. Call of the probable reception of his book in this very heedless and stupid world: time will soon teach him by facts rather than words: let us, rather, speak of the peculiar characteristics of the book itself. There is a popular notion — popular even among educated men in considerable degree — that mathematical skill is associated with clearness of thought and accuracy of expression; and whenever we are treated to a eulogistic dissertation on the value of arithmetic as a branch of study and as a means of 'training the mind', we are sure to hear of that notion. But it is a great blunder. The faculty of perceiving clearly the relations of quantities, of numbers, and of space, is so remote from the faculty of language that many who excel in the former are very deficient in the latter. So Mr. Call sees clearly relations of numbers and quantity in the expression of which he makes rather awkward work. Take for example the following, from page 34:

"In Division, the quotient takes its name from the divisor, as in the following:

$$\begin{array}{r} 75.5 \\ .4 \end{array} = 1 \text{ yard of cloth.}$$
 In all such cases the sum is considered as money or some other units used as a circulating medium; and as many times as this .4 of such kind of a unit as is represented in the sum which represents 1 yard of cloth is contained in the sum, so many yards: thus, by division, $75.5 \div .4 = 188.75$ yards of cloth;" etc.

This looks very much like nonsense; but the author had a meaning in his own mind, which a careful student can find at last; but without previous knowledge, or without a laborious teacher, he would make nothing of it. We could cite very many such instances: the 'short-hand expressions' of the author will not give 'short-hand methods' to the student.

Mr. Call's system is not new except in the prominence which it gives to one particular thing; and in his appreciation of the value of that thing we believe he is peculiar. The pivotal point of his system of arithmetic is the Equivalence of Value as represented by different expressions. Whoever goes through the book

will get much training upon that one point, through all sorts of fractional and unitary forms of expression. He says of numeration and notation that 'a good understanding of them is, in substance, the understanding of all other arithmetical rules'. On pages 52 and 53 is a very good example of Mr. Call's 'system', and of his way of using it: after giving the question — 'What cost $3\frac{3}{4}$ yards of cloth at \$.75 per yard?'—and several methods of solving it, he gives a dozen examples of practical questions in which the very same figures may be used, the point being moved and new names given.

Mr. Call shows a defect of logical power in what he says of 'abstract numbers'; he can deal only with concrete expressions. He says: "We find in all School Arithmetics questions like the following: $\frac{3}{4}$ of $\frac{4}{5}$ of $\frac{7}{8}$ of $\frac{9}{10}$ is how much? We must acknowledge our ignorance by saying that we can not see any much or little in the expression, there being nothing named. Then we ask what does *of* mean between those figures? and we are told that *of* means Multiplication. We can not see it, and we wonder how others can; but they say they have learned it, and it is all plain to them. It was once as clear as mud to us; but we have so lost our vision that we can not see it to be multiplication. Should some one say to us Here is a block $\frac{9}{10}$ of a foot long, $\frac{7}{8}$ of a foot wide, and $\frac{4}{5}$ of a foot thick, and the price of it is $\frac{3}{4}$ of a dollar per foot, then we could see a good and practical question; but where there is nothing we can see nothing, and so it is with all learners: and this it is that causes such a dislike with many for this important branch of education."

So far as the use of abstract terms is concerned, it is very easy to explain all that is meant: it is simply a supposed case stated in general terms, with the words 'of one thing' understood, or understandable, after the last fraction. As to the other point, 'or' *never means Multiplication*, and we do not find that our best Arithmetics say that it means multiplication. It will be much easier to prove that it always means division, for it always implies it. Robinson says, "the word *of* between fractions is equivalent to the sign of multiplication"; that is, it indicates the same operations that are indicated by the sign of multiplication between fractions. Mr. Call may well be blind to any view of the word that makes it mean *multiplication*. What is termed multiplication by a fraction always implies two things—division by the denominator, and multiplication by the numerator: we say four-ninths of 18; the word *of* implies division; 'ninths of 18' implies division of 18 into 9 parts, each of which is 2; the multiplication is implied when we say 'four ninths', which means 'one-ninth taken four times'; hence, 'four-ninths of 18' implies both multiplication and division, though it is called by our writers 'multiplication by the fraction'. We shall not now take space to defend the use of the expression, for which there are good reasons, if not sufficient reasons.

As might be anticipated from what we have said, Mr. Call's book is deficient in generalizations, and presents principally methods of operation: he treats Arithmetic principally as an art.

THE DAY-SCHOOL BELL. Edited and published by Horace Waters, New York, 1861. 219 pages: in paper covers, 20 cents; in embossed muslin, 40 cents.

Mr. Waters is the editor of the popular juvenile singing-books the 'Sabbath Bells', of which more than half a million copies were sold in the first thirty months after their publication. Every one who is a teacher or pupil in a Sunday-school

knows of them; and their popularity shows that Mr. Waters has known how to suit the popular taste with music that is scientifically unobjectionable.

The little folks will thank the author for this new work in their behalf, which gives them the cheapest juvenile music-book ever issued. Its style of printing, binding, etc., is like that of the *Sabbath Bell*. While there are many common and favorite airs and poems in the *Bell*, there are also not a few new ones, written or arranged expressly for this work. We see some music too difficult for the common school, put in for the benefit of the larger pupils and families where the cheering notes of these Bells are to be heard. May they be heard often and in many places.

THE THREE GREAT RACES OF MEN; their Origin, Character, and Destiny: with special regard to the present condition and future destiny of the Black Race in the United States. By J. B. Turner. 1861. Pamphlet, 8vo. pp. viii and 112. 25 cents.

- Mr. Turner, that same well-known Illinoisan whom some reverent people call Prof. Turner, has herein published his opinions on certain questions of ethnology and physical geography, with deductions therefrom respecting the future of the black race. Though just printed, the thoughts here given are not of recent date: they were for the most part presented to several audiences in the West some years since, in the form of lectures. He refused then to allow them to be published, as they were hastily written and he thought the world was troubled then with books enough on the 'nigger question', as sundry small politicians term it.

The book is not a political pamphlet in any respect. It is the attempt of a thoughtful, large-hearted man, with an eye for the volumes of God that are open to all — Nature and History, — to solve, by the aid of considerations suggested by physical geography and the characteristics of races, the problem of the future of the black race, and thus to indicate the true lines of policy for American statesmen and the American people. It is an original book, both in matter and style, as all who know Mr. Turner would expect: if we knew him less well, we should think that his style had been affected by mental contact with Carlyle; but we know that Mr. Turner has made but little acquaintance with the grumbling Scotchman, and that he writes, and for the quarter of a century that we have known him has always written, in his own peculiar way. He says in his preface that "the learned and literary man will doubtless smile at many of the ideas and expressions herein contained": we ca'n't answer for the 'learned and literary'; but several of our 'smiles' have been very broad and with great expenditure of breath and much side-shaking: some of the metaphors from the farm and the field have quite overcome our gravity.

The main doctrine of the book is that the three great races of man — the white, the black, and the yellow — are by natural characteristics destined to occupy three different zones of the earth's surface: the black man takes the equatorial region; the white man, the region in which frost occurs, as far as it is habitable; and the yellow man, an intermediate region, which is to be found only in Asia, because the Mediterranean, the Sahara, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Caribbean Sea, occupy that zone every where but in Asia. He thinks that the black man should govern in the equatorial region, and exclude the white man; and that the white man should exclude the black from his zone. He regards slavery as a prov-

idental means for transferring enough of the African race to the western hemisphere to people the part of South America which belongs to them, the region of the Amazon and the Orinoco; and that they will yet be got thither. In the development of the views thus outlined and in connection with them, he offers much that thinking men will ponder well, and will thank him for, as well as some theories that will find little acceptance. Whoever reads, putting away the pettinesses of party and sect and foregoing the prettinesses of rhetoric, will be instructed and interested. Often Mr. Turner's sentences are sublime as well as grotesque. Here is the opening of his first chapter:

"If we look at any part of the Creator's plan, we every where find it to be **UNITY** in **VARIETY**. Man seeks order in a dead uniformity; God, in endless variety. Man would dig down the continents and mountains into a dead level of fields, or of railroads, or cast them into the sea to build cities or wharves upon; but God, with his volcanoes and earthquakes, heaves up more in an hour than they all can cart away in a thousand years.

"Man would spread the dead level of some petty democracy, or despotism, or sect, over all the earth, and over Heaven too if he could, like a white winding-sheet over a great dead giant; but God, with his great moral and political volcanoes and earthquakes, will throw more anarchies, and schisms, and endless disorders, into their ill-timed work in a single day than they can all compose in a thousand years: and until they begin to seek **ORDER** and **UNITY** on his plan of **ENDLESS VARIETY**, they will never succeed, till they become both wiser and stronger than he is."

Here are a few sentences from his third chapter, in his comparisons of the races:

"The reader will remark that, in general terms, the one of these races is inevitably, black or dark, the other ruddy or white. The head of the one is developed boldly and widely forward, in the region of the intellect; that of the other piles and slopes backward, in the region of the sentiments and propensities: and as the white man can not laugh, so the black man can not frown; the white man 'teeshes', and 'giggles', and smirks, and smiles, giving a laugh of the head indeed, but the genuine, outbursting, uproarious laugh of the heart he can not well give. The black man may look cross, it is true; but that dark and awful frown of the white man, that strikes through the soul like a bolt from a thunder-storm, he can not command: and if he should ever try, the white man might well for once, if never before, burst out into a real hearty laugh. The one is thin-faced, thin-lipped, lean, spare, and active; the other is thick-faced, thick-lipped, naturally inclined to be corpulent, heavy, slow, and inactive. The whole man, in form, feature, gait, and motion, in the one case, bespeaks intellectual and physical energy, pride, and power; in the other it bespeaks the love of luxurious indolence, ease, quiet, grace, and repose. Intellect and action seem to be the controlling element and the final end of the one; sentiment, loyalty and repose, of the other. . . . God's revealed providential word to the Northern man is, 'CONQUER, OR DIE'. Hence, he must conquer the forest, the quarry, the mountain, and the slough, the river, the ocean, the wind, and the storm: he must conquer heat, and conquer cold; conquer darkness, and conquer light; conquer steam, and conquer thunder; conquer height, and conquer depth; and conquer even space and time themselves. He must every where conquer in the abstract and conquer in the concrete, or die; and, last and hardest of all, he must conquer himself. Nor can he stop in this magnificent career of conquests; for the moment he pauses adverse influences or hostile races will be sure to set in to devour and destroy him. It is ever on, on, on; conquer, conquer, CONQUER; triumph, TRIUMPH — one everlasting ovation, from knowledge to knowledge, from skill to skill, from light to light, from power to power, till Heaven itself is climbed. This is the work, the destiny, and the glory, of the intellectual man of the North. . . . They are, from the very necessities of their climate and their position, metaphysicians, critics, philosophers, ab-

stractionists, machinists, egotists, and democrats to the backbone, who conquer every thing, and patiently submit to nothing—not even to God himself: a race whose sciences are all quadrations and triangles; whose logic and rhetorics are all syllogisms; whose philosophy is all abstractions; whose productions are all machines; whose societies are all ‘ANTIES’; whose creed is all dogmas, bristling all over, like a porcupine’s back, with sharp, defiant proof-texts and demonstrations; and whose missiles are all bomb-shells, that every where kill as they fly, and kill still worse when they stop. Why such a race should have been shut out of Asia and out of Africa, through the earlier ages, till Christianity had gained power upon the earth, and most of all over this peculiar race, I trust is perfectly apparent, if God intended ever to keep alive more than one race upon the face of the earth.”

We have largely exceeded our usual limits for a book-notice, and must quote no more. We promise to all readers who have impartiality enough and hospitality enough for new thoughts in whatever garb, abundant reward for a careful reading of this tract, and an acquaintance—if they have not already that pleasure—with a most original and earnest mind.

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

This is to us one of the most interesting and instructive of our exchanges. It addresses itself especially to inventors, mechanics, manufacturers, chemists, architects, and farmers; we are neither of the six, but find in it much to enjoy and much that is valuable instruction to us. It is a popular scientific paper; and it does much to diffuse useful information among those who have had no larger education than the district school, the work-shop, the newspapers and a few cheap books can give.

We hope that some time—after the rebellion is over, and how much later we know not—the niggardly parsimony which now pinches the endowment of our common schools may give way to a more liberal and wiser policy, and that every school-district can have popular and worthy periodicals added yearly to its school library. Every half-year should add to such a library a volume of the *Scientific American*. It would prove an inestimable stimulus to the practical faculties of the people among whom it would thus have circulation; and the school-teachers would be the wiser for its visits.

Published by Munn & Co., New York. \$2 a year, or \$1 for a volume (6 months). Specimen numbers gratis. Illustrations in every number.

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ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

AUGUST, 1861.

NUMBER 8.

R O U G H - I T .

OLD MOTHER EARTH is rough, and her children must rough-it. Gentle traits are but soft spots on the surface of her character: beneath, all is substantial, rugged, rough.

Yet, we like Old Mother Earth; and the roughness is the best of her. The delicate pleases; but the rough sustains. We may admire the beautiful, we may desire the smooth and easy; but we live by the rough.

And the rough is pleasant. Among ice and crags can we find enjoyment. When body and soul throw themselves into the task, there is happiness in its progress, there is happiness in its accomplishment. It is the character with rough sides and jutting points that gains our sympathies and awakens our enthusiasm. Dignity is good; but energy is better. The exalted personage overwhelms us with awe, the smooth, evenly-developed character commands our profound respect; but sturdy, living, breathing qualities thrill and animate us. Rough 'Old Hickory' grasps our affections and makes our hearts leap, shouting, in their own way, ardent cheers for General Jackson.

Rough-it is the universal rule of life. For the want of an appreciation of this brief theory, millions die without ever having lived. Few are willing to take the rough as well as the smooth; and he only lives who roughs-it. Some are too nice to live, and only remain on earth inclosed in a sort of social bandbox—afraid of their dignity, afraid of their breath, and afraid of their broadcloth. Some are too timid to venture out on 'the full stream of life', and only paddle their canoes around quiet duck-ponds. The dandy does n't live: he only keeps himself in an extensive show-case, to exhibit the work of some fashionable tailor. Hundreds never receive their proper share of happiness, because they will not help themselves to it. And thousands

never accomplish any thing, because their mental constitutions and their complexions are so very delicate, their characters and their boots so highly polished, their wills and their backbones so very weak. He only lives who roughs-it: lives for an end, lives in earnest, lives in reality.

It is delightful to be stirred up. It is grand to travel over a rough road: to stub one's toes against stones: to tumble down and get up again: to dash through briers, thickets, and hazel-brushes. In difficulties and dangers, among billows that dash and in the tempest that howls, in the driving rain and the blinding snow; when the mind is absorbed; when the heart leaps and the blood flows quickly and the muscles play: then are we living, acting men.

Such earnest living made Douglas the regulating power of this government, and rendered him capable of those services which he has performed and, if spared, would have performed with a statesman's wisdom and a patriot's heart.

It is well to surrender the mind to soft influences—to bathe the soul in the calm unbounded sea of nature's beauties, and let the angel-wings of music fan the laboring thoughts to rest: but this is only intermission; rough-it, the order of the day. Life is not a little purling brook, gliding on through velvet meadows, kissing lilies and caressing pebbles: life is rough; and we must rough-it, like it or not like it.

But here a strange law appears: if we act as though it were smooth, it becomes rougher still; but if we take it rough, it will come smooth. Be mild with a coward, and he swells and heaves and threatens like a laboring earthquake: handle him roughly, and he is gentle as a dove. All difficulties are cowards: fear them, and they will annihilate you; grasp them by the throat, and shake them and choke them a little,—then, please your honor, they are at your service, and, like the giants of old, when conquered they are the most faithful and powerful of allies, leading you on to greater efforts and assisting you in mightier achievements.

Two odds make an even; two negatives make an affirmative; two roughs make a smooth,—that is, a rough job and a rough man make smooth work. And as for true, constant, rational enjoyment, its only source is earnest labor. Happiness is like the precious metal: the shining dust is often found glittering in the sand; but thus found it is soon exhausted, and the sure, steady, reliable supply must be obtained by delving through the clay, washing it out of the mountain's side, and crushing it out of the quartz.

Thus is it ever. By roughing-it the task is lightened, the end is attained, and pleasure secured in the work of life.

C O M P O S I T I O N .

EVERY teacher who looks back and remembers how he was taught will find much food for reflection, much to reproduce in his own pupils. Many things will stand out strongly in his memory as a warning, from which he must deduce the only good they ever could be to him—never to proceed in the same blind manner with others as others proceeded with him. The method, or want of method, is remembered for the teacher's good. Let me here give two examples of how two different teachers taught the subject of composition, in schools in which I had the good fortune to spend a part of my early school-life. Both were aged gentlemen and foreigners—one from Ireland, the other from Scotland. One was educated in England, the other in Scotland. They were both good scholars, and eminently pious men. The first was a splendid mathematician, the second excellent in history and belles-lettres.

HOW COMPOSITION IS NOT TAUGHT.—Without knowing more than was generally taught in western village-schools twenty years ago, I was sent some distance from home to the academy of the Irish school-master. He had a fine school, which had a great reputation for good order, and for the general advancement of pupils. This I think was deserved in every department but in composition: the teacher did not teach it at all; he only gave out the subjects, and the pupils were required, *nolens volens*, to bring in their compositions. The misspelled words and the greatest blunders of grammar were marked by the teacher, and then they were given back to be copied. After this was done, the friends of the school came in great numbers, once in two weeks, to hear them read. The pupils were assembled in state for these occasions, and read their compositions in a high-sounding school-tone, for the gratification of their friends, teachers, and their fellow pupils.

From the exercises of the first composition-day I was excused, but was requested to pay strict attention, that I might in future do likewise. I was quite familiar with Murray's series of Readers; and I must confess that I could hardly distinguish between the excellences of some of the compositions I heard and those of Blair, Addison, Johnson, etc. Many of them sounded wonderfully correct, and I have no doubt, to this day, that they were; for in them I traced striking resemblances to the aforesaid authors. Others, again, were not so classical; for one young lady read Irving's Grave as completely as she could

read it from the book. Others, again, were to me perfect enigmas, and beyond my comprehension.

I know not what effect they produced on others, but they had an awful effect on me; for I knew that on the next time I would have to rise and read, in as nearly the same way as I could; for the teacher—

“A man severe he was, and stern to view,”—

would take no refusal, and greatly prided himself on the reputation of his school for compositions, and especially the manner in which they were read.

I sweat great drops even in anticipation; but when he gave out the subjects, and ‘The importance of well-spent youth’ was given to me as the subject of my *first unaided* composition, my miseries seemed to me greater than I could bear. How I tried and tried to write, and how the more I tried the less progress I made, can not be written on paper. I appealed to my room-mate for advice: he only laughed at my troubles, and told me to take my compositions from books or newspapers, as the greater part of the rest did. He showed me how he patched up many of his, by taking a paragraph here and there, where he could make it hit his subject. He also showed me a great pile of the speeches of congressmen, from which he stole whenever he was allowed to choose his own subject. He further declared that, as very few read these speeches, he ran no risk of being caught. My desire to obey my teacher, and to appear well before my fellow pupils, overcame my sense of the wrong I did; and I am sorry to say that my compositions troubled me only in my conscience for the remainder of that session.

A dry, abstract subject was generally given by the teacher; and he seemed to be satisfied if he got his three pages of letter-paper for correction. Once, during the year, I saw a boy corrected for copying a piece verbatim from the old English Reader.

During the vacation that followed I made my first visit to this city; and while I was here a large steamboat was burned at the wharf. To a green country-boy a fire in a city is not one of its least-novel sights. Stranger and boy as I was, I was so excited by the old-fashioned way of going to fires that I rushed out from the hotel, regardless of its being night, seized a rope attached to a hose-cart, and went on with the crowd, pell-mell, to the fire. It made such an impression on me that when I went back to school I described this fire. *This was my first original composition.* I had always told the teacher, before, that I could not write compositions; but after he read this he handed it back to me with the remark—You need never say again you can not write

compositions. If he had really known how to *teach* composition, he would have then taken the cue, and easily led my mind on in such a way that to exercise it by writing compositions would have been a real pleasure. But I am sorry to say that that was the only truly original composition that I wrote for this teacher in one year.

HOW COMPOSITION CAN BE TAUGHT.—How different was my next teacher. With him I was never once even tempted to plagiarize. After he had examined all the *new* boys that came in that session, he selected those for a *composition class* that had studied grammar in the old-fashioned way, but who had never made any real progress in writing compositions and essays. We numbered in all twenty-five boys, on the general muster in the doctor's recitation-room. He commenced by a lecture on the uses of this part of our education. We were told that at first we were only expected to have the simplest form of composition, such as *boys* and not *men* would write; that in no case *could* we write about any thing until we had *thoughts and feelings of our own about it*; that it would always be right, and even necessary, that we should read as much as we could find on the subject for our essay, but that when we sat down to write all books must be laid aside, and the thoughts that had been generated by our previous reading and study must then be written down as the essay to be handed to him. He spoke of the meanness of plagiarism, and that we might as well expect a fine bodily development by employing another person to eat for us as to expect a healthy intellectual growth by taking the thoughts and words of another and using them as our own. He endeavored, also, to impress us with the sinfulness of a course which, though it *might some times* deceive him as to our real work, would always react with a ten-fold power for our own ruin, both mentally and spiritually. He then told us—that he might know how well we were able to spell, use capitals and the English language correctly—he would tell us a short story, which we were to write in our own language and bring to him as the next lesson.

The story was Hans Christian Andersen's 'Little Match-Girl'. A most-excellent and -beautiful little story it is. We were perfectly delighted with it; and I do not doubt but that every boy in that class will remember it as long as he lives. We were told that every composition ought to be arranged in paragraphs, according to the sense of its different parts. The doctor then went to the blackboard and wrote out the headings of these paragraphs as follows:

- (1.) The description of the little girl and her home.
- (2.) Her occupation, and the coldness of the day.

- (3.) The incident of her crossing the street.
- (4.) Her thoughts and fears as she took refuge in the corner.
- (5.) The first match.
- (6.) The second match.
- (7.) The third match.
- (8.) The fourth match.
- (9.) The bundle of matches.
- (10.) The next morning.

I found afterward that in telling it the doctor had changed the story a little from the original, so as more properly to fit the headings of his paragraphs; but I am sure it lost none of its beauty by the change.

When the stories were produced in the class, the doctor kindly took each boy by his side and corrected his work, making such suggestions to each as his deficiencies seemed to demand. These labors were continued in the same way for five months. In this manner we acquired the *use* of language, as well as a stock of beautiful stories. We now come to the more matter-of-fact part of our training. Our exercises were now equally divided between telling and writing. Our teacher would take an object—a plow, a steamboat, an engine, or any thing—and write its name on the board as a *subject*. He now asked any of us to tell him any thing about our subject. This he would write down in short-hand. Then he would ask for something else: this written, he would again interrogate, proceeding in the same manner until the subject seemed pretty well exhausted. Then he would say, That is enough; now copy these *milestones* of your journey, and bring me your composition. He always gave us the liberty, and even encouraged us, to produce compositions as different from the notes as possible. In addition to this, each boy was now required to read up and recite the biography of some noted person. These recitations were subject to a very severe criticism, from both teacher and pupils. We not unfrequently had to go back and read again—perhaps from a different author, and some times from several. When the subject was as well mastered as the pupil was able, then it had to come as a biography in the written form. At last, one day, feeling a little out of patience with the efforts of some of the boys, each boy was required to write his own biography.

At the end of this session our compositions took quite another form; but the biography was continued another five months. We recited Headley's 'Napoleon and his Marshals'. The doctor told us that he thought they were bad men, and he hoped we would never imitate them; but that it was necessary that we should know something of them, and he thought the florid style of Headley would help us to re-

tain this knowledge better for recitation. As the previous session was almost entirely occupied with American biography, so this was occupied in European. Gustavus Adolphus, Peter the Great, Frederick the Great, Luther, Cromwell, and others, came in for their share of study.

Now came their use. The teacher would take up some individual about whom different opinions had been expressed, and bid us note down these differences and find out their causes, sift out the truth as well as we could, and bring in our work in the form of a composition.

Then, again, he would read to us a glowing description of some great event in life, and require us to write an essay in the same style, only taking a different subject or hero for our study. Thus we were led on from the simple story to a higher form of composition, often having to use analytical and synthetical powers that would have puzzled older heads than ours without the previous training.

During the later years of my pupilage with this loved teacher I copied some of the subjects that were given for compositions. I think I can not do a better thing than to copy some of them here, leaving the reader to infer the progress that had been made in order to treat them successfully. They also show a depth of thought in the teacher's mind which is not always shown in giving out subjects for composition.

(1.) A summary statement of the means that have been used and still are used to raise man from a savage to a civilized state.

(2.) A statement of the agreements and differences between animal and vegetable life.

(3.) Upon the supposition that you have a wise and good king, has a republican government such as the United States any advantage over a limited monarchy such as Great Britain?

(4.) A statement of some of the leading facts which, in their early history, gave character to most of the kingdoms that were founded on the Roman Empire by the barbarians of the north.

(5.) A statement of the historical facts in illustration of the uses and abuses of the Dictatorship among the Romans.

(6.) A statement of the various ways in which the civil and ecclesiastical establishments have mutually assisted each other in England.

(7.) A statement of the facts and principles incorporated in the Constitution of the United States, to show that one great and leading object of the framers of the Constitution was to secure peace, as far as possible, to the people of the United States, and that the government of the United States should live in peace with all the nations of the world.

Such were some of the subjects that that good old man gave out to

his pupils; but many, many steps were taken first. So must all who would teach composition commence at the lowest and easiest point, and work their pupils very slowly along, until they attain the desired end.

DANIEL HOUGH, *Journal of Progress*, April, 1861.

PUNCTUATION.—NUMBER II.

THE first question to be settled when we begin to study Punctuation is that which asks its fundamental principle. All persons that know any thing of the use of points will admit at once that they should be used to designate the syntactical relations of the words, phrases, clauses and sentences in connection with which they are used, and thus to make the meaning of the writer more obvious to the reader; or to show the pauses and inflections of the reader or speaker; or for both purposes at once; or for each purpose at different times, as the case may require. There is still another supposition: that some points are used to show structure, and some to indicate delivery or both structure and delivery.

The delivery depends upon the meaning of the writer, and this is made manifest by the words used and the structure of the sentences. Whatever, therefore, makes the meaning of the writer plain to us indicates in the best way the delivery, as that naturally follows the meaning. If, therefore, punctuation were desired to indicate delivery, it would most effectually indicate it by following the structure of the sentence and making that plain to the reader. Reasonably, then, we might say that if punctuation be based upon grammatical rules, all the ends of delivery will be answered as fully as if it were based directly upon the supposed delivery: and they will be likely to be answered even better; for as grammatical structures are simpler than elocutionary ones, a grammatical punctuation will be easier comprehended, and the reader less often left in doubt.

But apart from a-priori views, let us see what authors say on the subject. The three best grammatical works that we have in this country are Mulligan's *Structure of the English Language*, Fowler's *English Language in its Elements and Forms*, and Brown's *Grammar of Grammars*. So far as the discussion of the structure of language is concerned, the first of these is far the best. On this subject Mulligan says "In *written* language a number of *diacritical* marks called *points* (often improperly named *pauses*, we object even to calling them

signs of pauses) are employed for the same purpose of marking the grammatical and logical divisions of discourse; not to *represent* pauses." (Op. cit. § 160.) . . . "But when it is attempted, forgetting the direct purpose of punctuation, to make it agree with the pauses throughout, we immediately involve ourselves, as was to be expected, in difficulties, and subject our rules and practice to a charge of inconsistency, by attempting to accommodate our system to two sets of laws which do not always coincide; namely, the laws of grammatical construction, and the laws which regulate the pauses in human speech." . . . "In order to maintain consistency in punctuation, we must regard the sense and grammatical structure, and these only, and guard against considering points as the mere representatives of pauses." (*Id.* § 160, *Note b.*) This is a clear and true statement of the fundamental principle of punctuation. Let us now consult the others.

In Prof. Fowler's large work a dozen pages of coarse type are devoted to this important branch of grammar, at the very end of the book, as if they were the hurried Saturday-night remnant of a week's heavy work. Considering the quality of these dozen pages, however, the owner of the book may well be glad that he was not obliged to purchase any more of the same. The writer says "Punctuation . . . is the art of dividing written composition by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses which the sense and the pronunciation require." He thus limits punctuation entirely to rhetorical purposes. He then notices the two views—one that punctuation is governed by delivery, and the other that it depends upon grammar; tells a ridiculous anecdote against the latter; then admits that the general practice is in accordance with the latter view; and goes on to give 'rules'. Of course these 'rules' instruct us how to place 'points or stops for the purpose of marking the different pauses', as said in the definition? *Not one of them!* Every rule but one directs the placing of points with reference to grammatical structure; and that one is vague and false. The author is forced, when he descends to particulars, to abandon his definition, and practically to admit that punctuation is grammatical, and not rhetorical; that it indicates structures, not pauses.

Goold Brown says "Punctuation is the art of dividing literary composition, by points, or stops, for the purpose of showing more clearly the sense and relations of the words, and of noting the different pauses and inflections required in reading." This author then makes the points answer both rhetorical and grammatical purposes; and he goes on to say "The Comma denotes the shortest pause; the Semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the Colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the Period, or Full Stop, a pause double that of

the colon. But in the 'Observation 1' immediately succeeding he leaves 'foolish traditions', and, coming to realities, informs us that "The pauses that are made in the natural flow of speech, have, in reality, no definite and invariable proportions." It follows that the graduated pauses which he sets forth in the immediately-preceding statement have no real existence; and his four points—comma, semicolon, colon, and period—denote only something imaginary, which is well-nigh the same as to denote nothing at all. His next 'observation' relates the origin of the names of the four principal points, which is instructive. He says "The first four points take their names from the parts of discourse, or of a sentence, which are distinguished by them." Observe that their very names imply that they are grammatical points, and not rhetorical. "The *Period*, or *circuit*, is a complete round of words, often consisting of several clauses or members, and always bringing out full sense at the close." We still use the term as equivalent to a complete sentence. "The *Colon*, or *member*, is the greatest division or *limb* of a period, and is the chief constructive part of a compound sentence. The *Semicolon*, *half member*, or *half limb*, is the greatest division of a colon, and is properly a smaller constructive part of a compound sentence. The *Comma*, or *segment*, is a small part of a clause *cut off*, and is properly the least constructive part of a compound sentence. A simple sentence is some times a whole period, some times a chief member, some times a half member, some times a segment, and some times perhaps even less. Hence it may require the period, the colon, the semicolon, the comma, or even no point, according to the manner in which it is used." It will be seen at once that he leaves out of view all *pauses*, and treats the points as indicating grammatical distinctions only. So in his rules he makes no reference to *pauses*, except in one direction respecting the colon, and in his rule for the dash, which is in fact some times a rhetorical pause-mark, and the only one. Brown, like Fowler, is compelled to abandon his definition, and to base all his rules, with two exceptions, upon grammatical relations.

We need hardly inquire into the smaller school-grammars and popular text-books, but I will say a few words of those which I have oftenest found in use in the West. Clark is 'on the fence'; he says, however that rhetorical pauses are not indicated by marks, but goes on to treat the four principal points as both rhetorical and grammatical in their offices, and gives a few vague rules. Greene treats the points as grammatical, and gives some good rules. Pinneo says "these marks denote the proper pauses", but his rules are based on grammatical relations, so far as they are based on any thing. Bullions says that "the use of these points is to mark the divisions of a sentence, in order to

show the meaning more clearly, and to serve as a guide in the pauses and inflections required in reading." His rules all depend upon grammatical distinctions, though he thinks that points some how relate to or indicate pauses, but so vaguely that no rule can be given. Finally he says that "Printers are generally the best punctuators, as they follow a uniform system. It is therefore for the most part, best, in preparing matter for the press to leave this matter to them, except where the meaning intended may not be clearly perceived without the punctuation." Better advice for a student is this: "Learn to point your writing yourself, and direct those who print for you: generally they need direction." Wells gives the same definition as Bullions: makes the statement that the comma requires a momentary pause; the semicolon, a longer pause; the colon, one longer still; and the period, a full stop. He says that the duration of these pauses depends on the character of the composition. In the next section he overthrows a part of what he has just said, by teaching that pauses are required where points are not allowed, and that points are some times inserted "*without requiring the suspension of the voice* in reading." How, then, does the comma 'require a momentary pause'? All his rules except that for the dash are grammatical. Butler states that the marks are used chiefly to denote pauses, but makes their use depend always on grammatical distinctions.

To sum up. All writers on the subject give rules for punctuation which are based almost entirely upon grammatical distinctions, and very rarely upon rhetorical ones; and they thus admit and prove—whatever their assertions to the contrary—that punctuation (except in the use of the dash) is to be determined by and based upon grammatical structure, and without reference to pauses. And such is the teaching of Mulligan, Mandeville, Greene, Boyd, Quackenbos, and Marsh, as well as of Wilson in his treatise on the subject.

It is time, then, that all teachers (and writers too) should cease giving that absurd and silly direction—"Stop at a comma long enough to count one, at a semicolon twice as long, at a colon three times as long, and at a period four times as long." Equally absurd is the direction which I frequently hear, 'Keep up your voice at a comma'; and so is the direction to let the voice fall at a period. The voice may fall at a comma, and rise at a period. It can be easily shown that no particular pause or inflection is associated with any one of our punctuation-marks. The voice may rise or it may fall at any one of them: there are pauses without marks and marks without pauses; and though there is always a suspension of the voice at a semicolon, a colon, a period, an eophoneme, or an eroteme, it is a coincidence, and not a consequence.

SCRIBA.

CONVERSATIONS WITH AN OLD SCHOOLMASTER.

SEVERAL months ago I began to set down some of the matters which I am in the habit of talking over with a friend who has for many years been an honest and very successful teacher of youth. My opportunities for social communion with him have, since that time, been very very much less frequent than before, owing chiefly to my own manifold engagements. A few days since I met him, and we talked somewhat as follows :

"Erastus," said I, "I find it quite hard to decide what method I shall adopt in my school to accomplish soonest and with least danger of failure the object of the school-room ; and I would be very grateful to you if you would enlighten me."

"It is a very old question," said he, "and a very radical and important one, for that matter. There are three questions which come up in a school-room a hundred times every day, or, at least, ought to come up with every subject that is touched there: WHAT? HOW? and WHY? The topic now started alludes to the second; and to a practical teacher in our public school, where the course of study is marked out, or where the first question is authoritatively answered by a committee, and where the habits of the teacher and scholars almost compel them to answer the third, the second question is certainly the main one."

"So true is this," said I, "that every hour I find myself asking *How* shall I teach this, and *how* that? *How* shall I manage this case, and *how* that? And if I could only get a sufficient amount of light on this point of *how*, or of *method*, it does seem to me that I should be completely at ease in my school-room. Now, if you please, do enlighten me on this point."

"All I can do", returned he, "in this matter is to stimulate your own mind to make its own suggestions. You, as is any teacher, are able to teach yourself all that you need to know, provided you put your thoughts on the right track and keep them there."

"That is the difficulty," said I. "To get on the right track is one very important thing ; but to know the right track when you are on it is more important, and to know which way you are moving is most important of all. Have you never been seated in one of two trains of cars standing side by side on parallel tracks at a railway-station, and when the other train, at which you were looking, started found it difficult to convince yourself that your train was not in motion? So it

is with this matter. You may be at a dead stand-still; and while you look at some body who is moving you almost necessarily believe the motion which you see in him is in yourself, though, perhaps, it is in an opposite direction from what you seem to be going. How, therefore will you know who moves on the right track?"

"The difficulty is more in appearance than in reality." replied he. "You can in an instant tell whether your own train moves or not by turning yourself away from the one that does move and looking at some object which you know to be stationary. So in this matter of the right track or method in teaching: you can be sure you are right if you will only begin by understanding WHAT you want to do."

"I hardly apprehend your meaning." said I.

"Well, then, let me ask you how a shoemaker knows that he is working by the right method at his business."

"Why, by examining his work, and assuring himself that his shoes are well made, and that a large amount of work is done daily and well done."

"Very good. He compares his work with the design of that work, Does he not?"

"How do you mean?"

"He asks himself What is a shoe designed for? and he must answer, To protect the foot from the hardness and roughness of the road; to protect it, also, from the cold of winter and the dust of the wayside; and, lastly, to add to the beauty of the foot, by its good shape, pleasing color, and appropriate ornaments. So much for the design of his work. Now, does he not also ask Do I make shoes that serve all these purposes as well as they can be made to do, and do I make them with such dispatch as shall not waste my time needlessly nor destroy the materials committed to my care?"

"Undoubtedly."

"And if any workman is employed in any business, ought he not to ask himself the same questions: What is the design of my work—the whole design, and not a part of it? For another example, if a man desires to make a plow, is not his first inquiry What is a plow designed to accomplish? and then the second, By what arrangement and combinations of parts can the end be effected in the best manner, and, perhaps, with the greatest regard to beauty consistent with strength?"

"To be sure." said I.

"That is," continued he, "the plow-maker must assure himself that the object of plowing is to turn over the sod of the field, with whatever of manure or vegetable matter lies upon it, so that it may rot be-

neath the surface, and to bring up to the light a portion of the soil which has not recently been taxed with the task of production. It must, also, so stir and lighten every particle of the earth as to give the air and light an opportunity to permeate the whole and carry moisture and nourishment to the roots of the plants. All this must be certainly accomplished. Now, the great question, the one that shall try the plow-maker's ingenuity most of all, and that shall best prove him to be fit for his place among men, will be How shall I make plows so as every time to make an excellent one; how do this in the shortest possible time, and with the least waste of materials? and when he can accomplish this every time, without mistake, and rapidly, he is a perfect plow-maker,—Is he not?"

"He could not fail to be that under the circumstances you name." said I. "But what, then, follows as to our schoolmaster?"

"Why, very naturally, that he, also, must regard those two inquiries especially, and be able to answer the first one, in part at least, before he can answer the second."

"We are, then, first to consider what the school, and especially the recitations, are designed to accomplish, before we go further."

"Exactly. And we must, therefore, endeavor to find out what a recitation is to do."

"But that is not very hard; for that must be a drill for the scholar's memory, to see if he has studied, and especially if he has thought of his lessons beforehand, and to stimulate him to think much further."

"Yes;" said he, "and, beside this, to show how to do all duty hereafter in a manner at once thorough and rapid. But we must then set ourselves to find out what a man is to accomplish in the world. We must try to ascertain what forces can be brought to bear upon him. Yet many insist that all that is necessary for man to do, in regard to education, is to give him a knowledge of science; or, in other words, to find out what facts are true and what theories attempt to explain the various relations of those facts: and if a man only knows all this perfectly, he is their beau-ideal of human perfection. With such the design or end of education is to impart information; and the more readily and easily a teacher can do this the better they like him and value his calling. With those men it will only be necessary to study that arrangement of the facts or knowledge to be communicated which shall best aid the memory to retain them all, and which shall also assist the recollection to revive the whole mass of facts when occasion shall call for it. A logical order of facts and an alluring manner of laying them before the minds of the young may accomplish this very superficial purpose or end of education.

"Another class of persons insist that the whole end, or the only useful end, of education is to discipline the mind—to make it vigorous, elastic, ready, always prompt to obey the command of the will, and patient to follow work for a long season and under the most discouraging circumstances. What is meant by discipline in these circumstances is that kind and amount of exercise which shall fit the mind for the greatest labors and enable it to bear up under the severest studies. Now, is it not easy to see that if this be the end of study or of school the method must be a very different one from what it would be if the gaining of information is the sole or main object?"

"Most assuredly; for the first is supposed to require only capacity and the power of absorption, while the latter will demand very earnest, very energetic, and often long-continued, labor and exercise. But, after all, are those so very dissimilar in reality as they are in appearance? in other words, are not the methods demanded and already hinted at by you more discordant in name than in meaning, after all?"

"I think not," said he—slightly embarrassed, as I thought, and a little puzzled to find words in which to make clear and express the difference so as to make himself fully understood. "To acquire information", said he, resuming, after a moment's thought, "requires simply a good-constituted memory, well cultivated and exercised. In fact, to memorize accurately and extensively demands rather a repression of the analytic and inventive powers; while discipline is precisely and chiefly the strengthening and training of these powers. If one will remember exactly any particular thing, he must do comparatively little as to drawing inferences, and must not mingle his own thoughts very much with what he reads or learns: he must only recall what he hears, or sees, or reads; and some arbitrary method of arrangement may enable him to do this, perhaps, even better than a philosophical one. It is true that what we call a good memory is often joined with great ability in other directions. But such men's memories have not been exclusively cultivated: indeed, it is probable that their memory, as a distinct power, was not at all cared for; and I think it will be found true that the memory is really best cultivated by seeming to pay very little attention to it as a separate faculty. Let the teacher direct his efforts to the strengthening and training of the mind and soul, and he will prepare the pupil most rapidly to comprehend knowledge or to grasp information, and also to retain and make it available. Let him endeavor to make for a child an inventive mind, one ready with expedients as well as strong to grasp and hold on to whatever comes near it, and I think he will best make him capable of memorizing. In other words, let the teacher, or the parent, aim to

cultivate every power of mind and body, and he will almost necessarily best cultivate the memory as well as the reason."

"This may all be admitted as true;" said I, "but what does it really prove in our present case?"

"Why, I must confess", said he, "that I am saying that the two methods are very much alike; or, that the method by which the mind is disciplined is really the one by which the memory is also strengthened. But my school demands a little study for to-morrow's recitations. We will soon talk again."

ROBERT ALLYN, in *Ohio Educational Monthly* for April, 1861.

THE LITERATURE OF POWER.

No age has been, doubtless no age will be, without its Gradgrinds, many or few—men who look upon facts alone as having intrinsic value, who altogether forget that facts are valuable, if at all, by virtue of their *effects*. The world to-day, and especially our practical, enterprising American society, is pretty well taken up with the utilities; quite thoroughly absorbed in that selfish, intolerant and fatal materialism which ignores the essential, the substantial, and regards as important only the visible, the tangible, and the ponderable,—as though shelter, food and clothing were our only real wants. We disavow all sympathy with that asceticism—the essence of pride and selfishness, from which our own age is not wholly free,—which in times past led men away from their fellows to undergo mortifications of the flesh and humiliations of the spirit. It is but a negative virtue which would remove body and mind from the myriad delights of sense and society. Unquestionably we should give to the body a more rational attention than we have hitherto done; not, indeed, for its own sake, not as the final end, but because it is the home of the spirit, and must furnish the conditions of spiritual activity. Our spiritual wants are our real wants. Our spiritual experiences are our real experiences. We agree with Leigh Hunt, that "there is nothing imaginary in the common acceptance of the word. The logic of Moses in the Vicar of Wakefield is good argument here: 'Whatever is': whatever touches us, whatever moves us, does touch and does move us."

Any process of culture which ignores a single faculty or susceptibility of our nature is so far imperfect, so far fatal. In the progress of invention and culture there need be no want of harmony; no con-

flict, certainly, between means that answer to our physical wants and means that answer to our spiritual wants. On the contrary, our highest bodily and spiritual interests are clearly identical. When an exhaustive analysis of the arts of life shall be given, it will appear that that there are few or no departments of art which are useful in a material sense alone; and that if any are so, considered with reference to their direct adaptations, there is yet much in their processes to awaken the sensibility and to refine and gratify the taste. It might be shown that the construction of the most common productions of mechanical skill, in order to the highest utility, lies in the direction of the best proportion and symmetry; so that while the laborer is busy in his daily task an unconscious culture may be going on—the æsthetic nature may be nurtured, the eye be trained to detect forms of grace and beauty. Even the sciences are not, as might at first be supposed, an exception to this law. To one standing above them it will appear that they are seldom made in our text-books and encyclopedias to embrace all that legitimately belongs to them; but the commonest natural object is invested with conditions of beauty which transcend calculation and elude definition, and are yet appreciable and satisfying. The natural, the ordinary,—architecture, music, all the arts of design, all productions in the three kingdoms of nature,—are seen to comprehend, and to be built upon, the transcendental, the exact. In such books as Hunt's *Poetry of Science*, Mantell's *Wonders of Geology*, Miller's *Footprints of the Creator*, the *Bridgewater Treatises*, Maury's *Geography of the Sea*, and Lewes's *Studies of Animal Life*, there are relations of things as marvelous to young and old as are found in fairy legend or tale of magician or knight-errant. It is in the infinite world of thought as in the infinite world of space: the farther the sun throws his beams the more does he reveal the confines of the beautiful and the mysterious.

This is one of the most obvious lessons of modern popular science; and yet, through almost all of our theories of doctrine and life still runs this venerable fallacy of utility. It gives us erroneous, mostly because partial and imperfect, theories in legislation, morals, and culture. In the metaphysics of life men become preoccupied with one view of truth to the neglect or exclusion of all others. A generous eclecticism—which, though not a philosophy and culture in itself, is yet the spirit of all true philosophy and culture—accepts the beautiful and true wherever found; no matter though mingled with error in existing systems, or buried amidst the rubbish of effete and decaying theories. It seeks to estimate all things according to a uniform and permanent standard of value—that is, their adaptation to particular faculties, susceptibilities, and wants of the soul. Though it recognize the pre-

eminence of some among them, it never forgets that all are essential to spiritual symmetry and nobility. In its view, it is simply the imperfection and infirmity of our mortal state that we as physical beings require certain things in order that we may as spiritual beings enjoy certain other things. Whatever has relation to culture and rational amusement, whatever secures the discipline of life for a higher life, is valuable. Pleasure, comfort, enjoyment, are, with all their abuse, spiritual terms.

It is, as every school-boy knows, the chief triumph of modern philosophy in the hands of metaphysicians, from Descartes to Hamilton, to have established the possibility of a scientific classification of our faculties. One of the most-pleasing results of this analysis is that it reveals the mind as going forth in its entirety in the action of each of its faculties. The imagination, the memory, the taste, the conscience, the logical faculty, are not faculties dwelling and working apart; but the whole mind is, for the time being, in each—*is* each, we should rather say. Intimately related to this fact is the law that, in the well-disciplined mind, the Presentative, the Conservative, the Reproductive and the Representative faculties—to borrow terms from Hamilton—mutually demand and conditionate one another; each requiring for its highest development and most useful activity the prompt and healthful coöperation of all the others. We shall not now seek the application of these laws to the criticism of literature and art. To the neglect or ignorance of them are unquestionably due the disagreements among our critics, and the inconsistencies which characterize the works of almost every one in particular; and to a growing interest in them is due whatever improvement distinguishes contemporary criticism. Psychology is, as yet a progressive science; and it inevitably carries along with it, in its progress, literature, art, and criticism.

In no other department of current criticism have we so often and so deeply deplored the absence of fixed principles as in that of novel-criticism. Comparatively little has been done at all, and still less has been done well. We need, above almost every thing else, a critical history of narrative fiction. This is an all-pervading form in the reading world. Other departments—the epic, the drama, the allegory—find here and there centres of attraction: this runs through all, and and must abound more and more so long as the conditions of social, intellectual and moral life remain what they now are. To render it apparent that these conditions are stable, involved in the very genius and spirit of Protestant thought and culture, we need to show that the novel demands vindication, not upon separate and exclusive ground, but upon the ground occupied by all poetry and all the arts of beauty.

North-American Review, April, 1861.

THE MYSTERY OF COMETS' TAILS.

THERE is nothing in nature more mysterious than the growth and motion of the trains of comets. When a comet is first discovered by a telescope it generally has no tail, appearing like a faint star seen through a haze. As it approaches the sun the tail is developed, starting out on the side next the sun, but being immediately turned back, as if it were a flame acted on by a powerful blast coming from the sun. The nucleus or head of the comet is matter, though lighter than the thinnest fog; but the tail is either not matter at all or it is acted on by forces which do not manifest themselves on this earth. If the train were simply matter, acted on by gravitation, it would follow the head in its track around the sun, consequently bending as the head sweeps around the part of its orbit nearest the sun into a semicircular curve. In stead of this, the train *always points from the sun*, swinging around as the stream of light from a lantern in the fog does when the lantern is turned. As the trains are some times of such length that they would reach from the sun to the earth, and as the comet when nearest the sun moves through many degrees of its orbit in a few hours, the end of the train is swept around with a velocity which forbids the belief of its being matter possessed with the property of inertia.

The velocity, too, with which the tail is shot forth is irreconcilable with its being subject to the law of inertia. The tail of the great comet of 1680, immediately after its perihelion passage, was found by Newton to have been no less than sixty millions of miles in length, and to have occupied only two days in its emission from the comet's body.

One of the most-singular phenomena of comets' tails is the violent commotion observed in them. Flames stream forth from the nucleus in fan-shaped and various other and swiftly-changing forms, toward the sun at first, but bending quickly back as if encountered by a furious blast, and then streaming away millions of miles into the sky. This may be owing to the intense heat to which they are exposed from their proximity to the sun. The great comet of 1843 approached the sun within about a seventh part of the sun's radius. Sir John Herschel calculates that at this distance the heat of the sun would be 47,042 times greater than it is at the earth, and at least $24\frac{1}{2}$ times greater than the heat in the focus of Parker's great lens, which melted carnelian and agate.

Usually, as the comet moves away from the sun the train, which it is now pushing partly before it, gradually diminishes till it disappears altogether. Some times, however, the train is obliterated in the vicin-

ity of the sun, the comet emerging from the sun's light without any tail whatever. At other times the tail is the longest just after the perihelion passage; at others there are two or three or more tails branching out like a fan. They are frequently curved like Donati's in 1858, and exhibit a great variety of singular phenomena, which are an incomprehensible mystery to the students of astronomy.

At about the same time Bissel and Prof. Pierce, each independently of the other, offered the suggestion that the trains of comets may be electricity. Perhaps they are simply light: the sun's rays in their passage through the unknown substance of the nucleus may acquire the power—analogueous to polarization—of producing the vibrations which constitute light.

The heads of comets are unquestionably formed of material substance, as they are acted on by gravitation and reflect the sun's light; but this substance is generally of extreme tenuity. Stars of the smallest magnitude have been seen through the densest portion of the head; and, in the language of Sir John Herschel, "the most unsubstantial clouds which float in the highest regions of our atmosphere must be looked upon as dense and massive bodies compared with the filmy and all-but spiritual texture of a comet." In some, however, a very minute stellar point has been seen, indicating the existence of a solid body.

Among the mysterious phenomena presented by the head is its diminution in size as it approaches the sun and its reëxpansion during its retreat. It also throws off nebulous envelopes, one after another, during the formation of the train, in a very curious manner.

Many of the comets move in elliptical orbits, and continue to revolve around the sun; but the orbits of a few have been ascertained to be hyperbolas, and these, consequently, will never return. Light, ethereal volumes of vapor, they come from unmeasured distances above, below, or on either hand, with constantly-accelerating velocity, rush in strange turmoil around the sun, and then move more and more slowly away on their solitary courses into the depths of space. Sci. American.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—*Prob. I in April No.* The prime factors of 9240 are $2 \times 7 \times 3 \times 11 \times 5 \times 2 \times 2$; of 42 they are $2 \times 7 \times 3$. It is evident from the nature of the question that the three numbers sought must each contain all the prime factors of 42, since that is their greatest com-

mon divisor, and at least *one* of the other prime factors of 9240, their least common multiple. Two of the numbers are, then, $2 \times 7 \times 3 \times 11 = 462$ and $2 \times 7 \times 3 \times 5 = 210$, and we have remaining 2×2 . We ascertain by trial that the least common multiple of $2 \times 7 \times 3 \times 2$, or 84, and the other numbers, 462 and 210, is 4620: hence, the third number must be $2 \times 7 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2 = 168$.

J. W. O.

Prob. II in April No. Since A's stock plus B's is to B's as 7 to 5 (the problem reads 5 to 7, which is evidently an error), 5 times A's plus 5 times B's must be equal to 7 times B's; whence, 5 times A's stock must equal 2 times B's, or A's stock is equal to $\frac{2}{5}$ of B's. Since C's stock minus B's is to C's plus B's as 1 to 7, it follows that 7 times B's taken from 7 times C's must equal B's plus C's; whence, 6 times C's stock is equal to 8 times B's, or C's stock equals $\frac{4}{3}$ of B's. The gain must therefore be divided in the proportion of $\frac{2}{5}$, 1 and $\frac{4}{3}$, or of 6, 15 and 20. A, then, would have $\frac{6}{41}$ of \$610.65, or \$89.36; B, $\frac{15}{41}$ of \$610.65, or \$223.41; C, $\frac{20}{41}$ of \$610.65, or \$297.88.

J. W. O.

Prob. III in April No. Since $\frac{2}{3}$ of the time past noon $= \frac{3}{5}$ of the time to midnight, the whole time past noon must $= \frac{2}{3}$ of $\frac{3}{5}$, or $\frac{9}{10}$, of the time to midnight. Hence, the time from noon to midnight, or 12 hours, must $= \frac{10}{10} + \frac{9}{10} = \frac{19}{10}$ of the time from now to midnight. The time from noon to midnight, then, must be divided into 19 parts, of which 10 are past. One of these parts $= \frac{1}{19}$ hour, and $10 = \frac{10}{19}$ hr. 18m. 56 $\frac{4}{5}$ sec., which is the time now.

J. W. O.

PROBLEMS.—XV* A man travels from O to X. His dog starts from x with a uniform velocity a times as great as that of his master, the face of the dog being continually turned toward the latter. It being presumed that both the master and the dog start at the same time, it is required to find the equation of the curve $x\beta$, as well as to calculate when the dog will have overtaken his master.

G.

XVI. There are two numbers with properties as follows: If the cube root of the first be taken from the square root of the second, the remainder will be the same as if the square root of the second were taken from the square root of the first. Now $\frac{1}{2}$ the first number plus $\frac{1}{3}$ the second equals 44. What are the numbers?

J. W. O.

XVII. What will remain of a globe 30 inches in diameter if a suf-

* These problems are numbered as if the previous problems had been numbered continuously from the beginning of the volume.

ficient portion of it be cut out so that another globe of the same size will exactly fill the cavity and at the same time have a point in its surface touch the centre of the first globe? SAMUEL.

XVIII. A man travels from A to B, the distance being 40 miles. The first day he travels 20 miles; the second he turns and travels half way back; the third day he again turns and travels half way toward B. Should he continue to change his course each day and travel half way to the point before him, it is required to determine the whole distance traveled in n days. SAMUEL.

XIX. I have a vessel in the form of a pyramid, whose height is 36 inches and whose base is 24 inches square. As it stands upon its base I fill it with water to the depth of 12 inches. Should I turn it and stand it upon its apex, what will be the depth of water? J. W. O.

XX. Required, the diameter of a circle whose area is four times its circumference. F. F.

XXI. An old time-piece, which is a certain number of hours and minutes too slow, strikes in the six hours following true noon a number of strokes equal to $19\sqrt{\text{number of hours} + \text{number of minutes it is too slow}}$; and the number of hours it is too slow $+ \sqrt{\text{number of minutes too slow}}$ equals the number of strokes at the first hour of striking after true noon. How much is the time-piece slow? F. F.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

A TRAINING SCHOOL.—The Board of Education in Oswego, N. Y., has opened a department in connection with their public schools for the training of teachers in the most improved methods of teaching. They have employed Miss Jones, who has for fifteen years been similarly employed in the famous Training Schools of London.

Much is now said of Object Teaching; and this course of lessons is for instruction in that subject in great degree. It affords an excellent opportunity for those who wish to avail themselves of the experience of others in this department, and we hope many will embrace it. The course extends from August 6 to May 1. Information given by E. A. Sheldon, Secretary of the Board, Oswego, N. Y.

A WHALE IN A TANK.—A whale of the species *Beluga*, which at full growth would be 50 feet long, has been caught in the St. Lawrence river, boxed, carried 7 miles by common road and 500 miles by railway by special trains, to Boston,

where he is exhibited in a huge tank at the Aquarial Gardens. He is 12 feet long and weighs two tons. He was caught in a weir.

A PIANO IN PERSIA.—One of Boardman, Gray & Co.'s Young - America pianos was lately sent to the mission at Seir in Persia: to reach its destination it was carried from Trebizond, more than 500 miles, on a rude litter between two horses, over mountains where the only roads were narrow, steep and crooked bridle-paths, among which it got one heavy fall. It was an object of great admiration to the people of every rank: even the prince who is governor of the province came to hear it. A Syriac teacher at the mission contrasted it with a melodeon, and said of the latter "It is like a buffalo, it can not go; but this is like a rabbit, it runs."

SCHOOLMASTERS IN THE WAR.—Mr. Hovey is raising a regiment to be composed as much as possible of teachers and students: it will probably be filled and mustered into service by the 25th of August, we are told. The *Normal Rifles*, a company composed of Normal students, which is already well drilled, will be one of the companies. We hope they will be efficient aids in helping to drill a little civilization into that barbarous land where schoolmistresses as well as schoolmasters are stripped naked, whipped, and tarred-and-feathered, even in the cities. We have read of no less than three definitely-authenticated instances of the tarring-and-feathering of northern schoolmistresses in the South: one in Tennessee; one in San Antonio (Texas); and one in New Orleans: in the latter instance well-dressed and reputable women looked on and approved! Let the 'educational regiment' remember the wrongs of their order when they meet the brutal foe. They fight for civilization, knowledge, and freedom, against barbarism, ignorance, and slavery, the root of all our troubles.

VERMONT.—The Third Vermont Regiment is reported to have in its ranks two hundred school-teachers.

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING died at Florence, on Saturday morning, June 29th, 1861. She was born in London in 1809. She became a writer in 1819, and issued her first book, an 'Essay on Mind', written in rhyme, in 1826. It was soon withdrawn, and is not now to be found. Her next book, 'Prometheus Bound', issued in 1833, she likewise withdrew; and in a later volume of collected works speaks of it as 'an early failure which may be remembered against her by a few friends'. In 1837 she was brought low by bleeding at the lungs and by the soon-following shock of the sudden death of a beloved brother. For several years she was an exile from society, and gave herself to study, reading the Hebrew Bible, Greek authors, as well as Latin and foreign literature in large extent. By a happy accident, during this seclusion, she became acquainted with the poet Robert Browning, and, in spite of the opposition of her family, in the fall of 1846 she became his wife, rising from her bed to receive the wedding-ring upon her finger. The bridegroom was three years her junior. The marriage proved most happy. Since then she has lived mostly in Italy. In the recent struggles of that country for independence she took the liveliest interest. Of her writings it is almost superfluous to speak. She was the most gifted poetess of the English language: that is honor enough, when we reckon among those gifts of God a large and noble heart as well as great brain.

SCHOOLS BEGIN.—S. R. W., of D., Wisconsin, asks at what time schools generally begin in Illinois. Mr. Bateman said in his Report "Teachers are usually appointed, and the policy of the schools for the ensuing year marked out, prior to the beginning of September." Schools generally begin about October 1st. Directors are now chosen on the first Monday in August, that the new board may organize the schools.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E .

S., in the April number of the *Teacher*, says he does not like Robinson's Arithmetic, and gives a few cases of discrepancies in different copies as the cause of his dislike. His experience has been different from ours in this city. We do like the book very much. We have the latest edition, in which all the errors pointed out by S. are corrected; and I do not remember of having detected a single mistake. Almost all text-books contain some errors—many of them typographical,—and of course first editions will contain the greatest number. The last edition of Robinson's Practical Arithmetic is as little open to the objection urged by S. as any with which I am familiar. I like it as a class-book better than any other I have ever used; and the other teachers of this city have expressed themselves to the same effect.

JOLIET.

L O C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E .

COLLEGE COMMENCEMENTS.—We give this month notices of all commencements that we have found spoken of in our exchanges, and should be glad if we could have included all that are in the State.

Illinois College.—We write from memory only, as we lost our copy of the *Jacksonville Journal* containing an account of the commencement at this institution, which was unusually interesting. Rev. Dr. T. M. Post, formerly professor there, now of St. Louis, delivered the address to the literary societies, on the subject of 'Loyalty and Freedom'. Rev. Geo. C. Noyes, of Laporte, Indiana, addressed the Alumni on a similar subject. The degree of A.B. was conferred on several young men, including two who were then in the trenches at Cairo. The reunion of the Sigma-Pi Society was very interesting; an added zest was given by the patriotic letter received from its members in the army.

Chicago University held its anniversary exercises on the 3d of July. The Law Department was most prominent in the exercises preceding the anniversary-day, having an examination highly commended by members of the bar, and a moot court on the 2d. The Junior Exhibition was held on the evening of the 2d. During the anniversary exercises Mr. Sheahan delivered a eulogy upon Senator Douglas, who was an early benefactor of the institution. Two gentlemen graduated with the degree of A.B.; one took the Master's degree; fourteen received the law degree of LL.B.; and several honorary degrees were conferred.

Mr. Douglas was President of the Board of Trustees at the time of his death: Wm. B. Ogden, Esq., was elected to the vacancy.

Lombard University.—The commencement exercises began with the Junior Exhibition, July 1st. Next morning the oration before the Alumni was delivered by Rev. W. H. Ryder, of Chicago; and on the evening of that day Wm. Mathews, Esq., of Chicago, delivered an oration before the literary societies (Erosophian and Thesmenosian) on the 'Significance, Use and Abuse of Words'.

On Wednesday, July 3d, the graduating exercises took place. We have no information of the number of graduates. The institution has had 268 students during the year. The correspondent of the *Chicago Tribune*, giving an account of the occasion, says that one young lady received the degree of *Bachelor of Science*!

Monmouth College held commencement June 27th. The Anniversary Address was by Rev. S. Hibben, of Peoria, on 'American Civilization and its Progress'. The graduating class consisted of five members, three receiving the degree of A.B., and two that of B.S. The Master's degree was conferred in course on two gentlemen, and honorary degrees on two gentlemen.

This was the fourth annual commencement of the institution. It has had a hard struggle with the times, but is moving on hopefully. It has had 220 students during the year. A new four-story building is going up, 53×74 feet, costing about \$18,000, which is to be completed by August 1, 1862.

Chicago High-School anniversary, with the closing exercises of all the city schools, occurred on July 12th. The occasion is always one of great interest and pride to the parents, children and teachers of the city. Thirty-one pupils completed the High-School course and graduated: the closing exhibition was held in Bryan Hall. Our assistant, Mr. Briggs, was specially pleased with one of the orations, 'Rough It', and obtained a copy for our pages.

The school-fund of Chicago is to suffer a severe loss by the failure of the Marine Bank, where its funds were deposited; but the Board of Education will not fail to carry on the whole system of schools with their usual energy and success.

Eureka College held commencement on the 26th of June. Three young men who were present received the degree of A.B., and the same was conferred upon three absent members of the class who were in the 17th Illinois Regiment, as was also one of the professors of the college. One young man received the degree of B.S., and seven ladies received the diploma of the college.

Clark Seminary, Aurora, held anniversary upon July 5th. It has had during the year 367 students in attendance; and more than forty of its young men have joined the army.

Wheaton College.—Mr. George F. Baker has been appointed Professor of Chemistry in Wheaton College.

Rock-River Seminary.—The Annual Commencement was held on Thursday June 27th. On the preceding Tuesday and Wednesday addresses were delivered before the literary societies by Prof. J. N. Martin and B. F. Sheets, Esq. The annual exhibition was held in a grove; in the morning young ladies reading their essays and in the afternoon young gentlemen delivering their orations. Two hundred and sixty-nine students have attended during the year.

Rockford Female Seminary held its anniversary July 11th. We have not found in our exchanges any further account of it than the programme with a commentary upon the performance: we are left to presume that Miss Sill, the Principal, is seeing the reward of her labors in the classes which her school sends forth well trained for life's work and honors.

THE TEMPORARY PRINCIPAL AT NORMAL, to fill the place during the absence of Mr. Hovey, is to be (so we are informed) Mr. Charles A. Dupec. A very good appointment.

SCHOOL REPORTS.

ALTON SCHOOL REPORTS.—We lately received copies of the Alton School Reports; but on taking them up for examination and notice we find that they are last year's reports. We therefore make no statement of their contents, as it would not be current news. We will, however, enrich our pages with two passages from the report of the Superintendent, Mr. Geo. S. Kellenberger.

Reading.—Comparatively speaking, good readers are more plentiful than good spellers. As a refined accomplishment, as a pleasant social embellishment, excellence in Reading can not be too highly appreciated. 'To read as one talks' is the rule; yet how few reach that standard! Short reading-lessons, selected with a view to varied intonations, emphases, pauses, and inflections, should be chosen, and read and re-read, until a good degree of excellence be attained. And let it be understood that in this branch, not less than in others, *thoroughness* rather than *rapid progress* is requisite.

"The most common fault is that pupils are permitted to read too fast. Few grown persons, who are accounted good readers, take sufficient time. Let it be remembered that *to read well* you must *read slowly*. You can not expect to make a superior reader unless you follow this rule strictly. Another scarcely less grievous and dangerous fault is that children are *forced* in this branch. Enter what school you will, and you will find more scholars using the wrong reader than the right one. In nine cases out of ten they will be found using a book at least *one grade* above the proper one, and half the time *two grades*."

Writing.—In no other branch of Common-School Education can there be found such diversity of attainment as in this. It may safely be asserted that we have in our schools some of the poorest penmen in the country, and some of the best. Nor would I make this remark apply less to teachers than to scholars.

"It is a fact that few persons ordinarily applying for places as common-school teachers are competent to instruct in penmanship; and, this being the case, it follows that this branch should be committed to the charge of teachers who make it a specialty. It is, like music, an art in and of itself. No teacher who writes negligently, or in any degree indifferently, can teach to write well. Neither does it matter what the bent of the young mind may be. He will ruin the prospects of those who would write well, and he will cause those who are naturally poor penmen to write ten-fold worse than they otherwise would. All experience proves this to be true. For instance: the Principal of our Advanced School, Mr. Newman, is a superior penman, and has, of course, taken great pride and pains in instructing in that branch. The result is that he had a school of good writers. The specimens exhibited by his scholars from time to time, and especially at the last examination, proved this to the satisfaction of all who saw them. They proved still more: that in some cases the master was fully equaled, if not *excelled*, by the

pupils; at least, he had carried them as far as he was able. He had formed their styles; he had enlisted their interest in the matter; he had awakened in them a pride and an honorable emulation; and the sequel is that in that school we have a unit of good writers. I believe now what I have never before admitted: that every one who can handle a pen can write well. But the measure of excellence will be in the exact ratio of the application to and love for the art.

"In our other schools a great diversity is manifest. Some have done tolerably well, some excellently; one or two signally failed. One of our teachers, at least, is a miserable penman; and, in evidence of the truth of the position above, the scholars under his charge are, if possible, worse than himself. I doubt if such a uniformity of bad writing can be found in any school in the State."

SAN FRANCISCO SCHOOL REPORTS.—*Tenth Annual Report of the City Superintendent.*—We are indebted to the Superintendent, Mr. James Denman, for the interesting report above named. We were not before aware that in the city of the Golden Gate schools had been so long and so well organized. The organization now includes a High School, seven Graded Schools with primary and grammar departments, two Primary Schools, and other schools entitled Evening, Foreign, Normal, Chinese, Colored, and Industrial. Seventy-three teachers are employed, and 5,743 pupils were in attendance during the year, the daily average being 2,837.

The Superintendent reports that there were in the city 9,025 children between the ages of 4 and 18; that of these 5,743 attended the public schools, and 2,115 were in private schools. From the remainder he allows 600 for children under 5, who are not allowed to enter school, and the remainder, 567, shows how many have attended no school, being less than 7 per cent. of persons of the proper age; and many of these are youth who have closed their school studies and are in business occupations. This is a gratifying evidence of the public interest in education.

The table of nativities is interesting. The pupils born in New York were 1454, while the Californians were but 1176. Europe, South America, Australia, Asia, and the Pacific Isles, furnished their quota; 13 were born at sea; 77 were Chinese; 16 were from New Zealand.

The actual current expense of conducting the schools was \$85,781.60, while the total expenditures from the school-fund were \$156,549.19; large sums were paid for school-lots and -buildings, and on indebtedness. The average cost was \$14.94 for each pupil that was in attendance, or \$30.34 for each one that was in school for the whole year. The highest monthly salary of any teacher was \$250, and the lowest \$62.50: we except the Music- and Drawing-teachers. It is not possible to compare these expenses and prices with those of other parts of the country without some common measure, as the price of board, for instance. All prices are high in California.

The Chinese School is as yet an experiment: a few of the more-intelligent Chinamen take an interest in having it sustained; but the fact that no Chinaman can become a citizen causes them to have little interest in common with the Americans, even in education.

Mr. Denman recommends that none be admitted to the High School under the age of thirteen years. He says:

"It is well known that many children at the tender age of twelve, by undue forcing and development of intellect, may pass the examination and gain admission, whose mental and physical constitutions are too feeble to complete a course

of study requiring four years of hard toil. They therefore often fail in health, and are compelled to abandon their long-cherished ambition for literary preferment.

"The standard of scholarship at first established for this school, upon trial, was found too high. It has therefore been reduced in some degree in the present course. It is still urged that the mathematical studies tax many of the pupils beyond their strength; and, since a majority of the scholars in attendance are young ladies, who never design to engage in the profession of teaching, I am of opinion that this study could be still further reduced with profit to the school.

"While it is important that the youthful mind should not be overburdened with too many studies, yet in removing the evil we must be careful not to run into the opposite extreme. If the standard of scholarship is reduced too low, it fails to stimulate the scholars to habits of thoroughness, self-help, and self-reliance. It should be remembered that the object of education is mental discipline and intellectual development. The price of this discipline and development is unceasing efforts. 'The way to scholarly excellence abounds in trials, perplexities, and hard work.' There is no railroad up the hill of science, or patent invention to supersede the necessity of mental toil. We must have the discipline of acquiring knowledge before we can fully appreciate the delights of literature and learning."

Upon methods of teaching the following is well said:

"*rote System*.—In many of our Grammar Schools, as in most of the other schools, there is too much memorizing the lessons in the words of the text-books, without understanding the character and meaning of the terms used. No more-fatal error prevails in the school-room than lumbering the youthful mind with mere abstractions, which impair in stead of developing the intellect. It is true that the faculty of memory should be early developed; but this can only be accomplished, with benefit to the child, by a harmonious cultivation of all the mental powers. A great deficiency, which is almost universal in schools, is a want of power to clearly express the true meaning of the terms used in books and conversation. This deficiency is the result of memorizing technicalities without understanding their use and application. Language is nothing apart from ideas; words must be taught to children in connection with the things and the principles they express. The teacher should, therefore, never take it for granted that his pupils fully understand their lessons until they can draw correct conclusions from the facts and principles studied in their text-books and express clearly, in their own language, the ideas impressed upon their minds.

"In many of the schools in the Eastern cities the teachers have almost entirely banished text-books from their schools, and adopted the Pestalozzian system of object-teaching and oral instruction, which is taught in Germany and Prussia. This entirely conversational system I regard as an opposite extreme, which should be as carefully avoided as the mere abstraction of the *rote system*. If scholars are not required to study some text as a guide, they are liable to acquire habits of inactivity and dependence upon the teacher, which weaken the powers of thought, self-reliance, and independent activity of mind, which should be the great object of all scholastic education. In this connection, I desire to recommend to the teachers one of the best modern improvements in teaching, which causes children to consult books of reference in the investigation of their studies. This system is practiced with much success in the High School, and should be adopted as early as possible in all the Grammar Schools. It would inculcate habits of self-culture and energy of character, which can not be too highly estimated in training the youth. I would therefore recommend the Board to supply each school with a small library of select books of reference for teachers and pupils."

ILLINOIS DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTION.—*Eighth Biennial Report*, 1861.—By an accidental misplacement of this report we have been prevented from noticing it.

This school is now under the charge of Mr. Philip G. Gillett, assisted by nine teachers. The annual average of pupils is 190: since the commencement of the school, fifteen years ago, 370 pupils have enjoyed its advantages. Under the

present excellent management the school is moving on steadily in its course of quiet usefulness, letting in the light of knowledge upon hundreds of darkened minds; and how blank the mind of a deaf-mute is none but its teachers can conceive. Until we had spent several hours in the rooms of this institution, and had talked with an intelligent teacher, we had no conception of the educating effect of language as daily drunk in by the attentive ear. We acquire so much knowledge by the eye, the pleasures which it gives us are so great and so manifold, and we so easily in darkness or by closing our eyes appreciate how great a loss is the loss of sight, that we do not know in what a prison he dwells around whom there is eternal silence; nor do we know what patience and skill are needed to gain access to their minds and to train them.

And the occupations of life are to great extent closed to the deaf-mute: this fact is sorely felt by them, as we know. They are for the most part driven to agriculture or the mechanic arts, and every where find the difficulty of communicating with others a serious impediment.

The following extract from Mr. Gillett's report will be found interesting to our readers.

"I have reason to believe that generally the parents and friends of the pupils have felt great gratification at their thorough and rapid improvement while at the institution. Indeed, in most instances perfect satisfaction has been expressed: still, there may have been a few exceptions to this, which should be mentioned rather as a matter of justice to the pupils than for any other reason. The misapprehension of the real status of the deaf-mute prior to instruction not unfrequently leads his friends to form a mistaken estimate of his improvement. This mistake as often occurs in the case of those who are unusually sprightly as among those less favored, and may be explained by a homely illustration. If upon a perfectly blank page a single line be drawn, the purity of the page is marred, and the blot stands out in bold relief to the most-casual observer; but if on a page bearing numerous marks a few be added, the effect will probably be unobserved, even by an observer tolerably critical. Precisely so is it with the mind of the mute under instruction. Brought to the institution with their minds almost totally blank so far as intellectual culture is concerned, in the course of one or two sessions they acquire a considerable vocabulary of words representing the most-common-place ideas and objects, and return to spend a vacation at their homes. Their friends, contrasting their limited acquirements with their previous ignorance, express—and justly—much surprise and gratification at their improvement. A few years later, however, when the labors of the teacher have been equally assiduous, and the application of the mute ten-fold what it formerly was, being engaged in the study of abstract ideas, and mastering the idioms and difficulties peculiar to written language, his progress seems slow, and the parent fears that his child has been dilatory or the teacher unfaithful."

NOTES AND QUERIES.

On *Query 39*.—You ask "What evidence is there that we are less able to resist cold when lying down than when standing or sitting?" The evidence of experience and observation. It seems to me that physiological principles, also, would lead us to expect that result: and Why?

C. H. L.

Answer to Query 25 (Vol. VI, p. 484).—"What kind of a verb is *had* in such

expressions as 'had rather', 'had better', 'had as lief', 'had lever'; and in what mode and tense is it?"

Goold Brown disposes of this question by saying "With an adverb of comparison or preference, as *better*, *rather*, *best*, *as lief*, or *as lieve*, the auxiliary *had* seems some times to be used before the infinitive to form the potential imperfect or pluperfect." (*Gram. of Grammars*, Edit. 1860, p. 365, Obs. 17.) He thus makes it an auxiliary verb, which has no tense itself, but taken with the succeeding infinitive makes the imperfect or pluperfect potential, just as *would* might do in the same connection. Either under this or under the immediately-preceding observation, that "the form of the indicative pluperfect is some times used in lieu of the potential pluperfect", one may class most of the examples cited by C. H. L.

If, however, we maintain, as many do, that there is no potential mode, and that what are called auxiliary verbs are principal verbs with infinitives depending upon them, then we must say in such cases as are given in the query that *had* is to be treated just as *would* would be in the same place: we should then call it a transitive verb, having the following infinitive for its object; and we should say that it is the indicative mode and past tense. 'You had better go'; that is, 'you would go better than stay'. the past tense is used because there is really a hypothesis underlying the formation of the expression, as there always is when *might*, *could*, *would* and *should* are used with an apparently-present signification.

Many persons suppose that *had* is in these cases used by mistake for *would*: thus that the expression *I would better go* was shortened into *I'd better go*; and that when the attempt was made to restore the words used in the contraction it was brought into the form *I had* in stead of *I would*, as *I'd* and *he'd* are used as contractions of *I would* or *I had*, *he would* or *he had*. But a more careful study of language shows that an error of this sort is extremely improbable, and that the form in question is a very old one: it is undeniably old English, and, despite the efforts of our superficial grammarians to discredit it, it is good English; and if our writers were as wise as the Germans, who seek to retain the idioms of their language in stead of rooting them out, no attempt would be made to throw it out of use. I do not know whether this peculiar use of the verb *to have* is to be found in more than one other language; but before I had thought of the idiom further than to suppose it an error of *had* for *would* I found it in the Dutch language, which is more nearly related to our tongue than any other is: *Ik heb liever* is parallel with our *I had rather* except that the verb *heb* is in the present indicative; and in that language the verbs signifying *had* and *would* are not so similar as to allow any interchange.

The primary meaning of *have* is *possess*. Few words, however, adhere to their original meaning without the addition of some tropical sense. In most of the languages of modern Europe this verb is used (with what is called erroneously the active past participle) to denote completed action. The philosophy of this I can not stop to elucidate: it is not, however, the superficial explanation commonly given, that the participle agrees with the object of the verb, so that *I have sharpened a pencil* should mean the same as *I have a sharpened pencil*. Another tropical use of *have* is that which denotes obligation: *I have to work*; that is, *I hold to work [as a duty or necessity]*. In the instances suggested by the query *have* has a different turn of meaning, implying preference or choice. *I had better go*: that is,

representing my actions as something which I possess, *I would better have* [possess as my action] *to go*; had being used as equivalent to *would have* or *choose to have*. I think this the explanation of the usage. Q. Q.

Queries 37 and Supplementary (pages 115 and 157).—As indicated in the preceding answer, by usage of our language, in poetry and old prose, and in the prose of those who are familiar with classical English of former ages, *had* is often used where now the commonest usage is to put *would have* in hypothetical clauses: '*Had need . . . well understand*' is, then, '*would have need well to understand*' in its meaning; and this statement, with the preceding reply, indicates the *parsing* of it for such as must parse every thing, or who bother sensible teachers with needless questions about parsing. '*Had need be very much his friend*' is equal to '*would have need to be very much his friend*'. '*Had not dared to do that evil*' and '*had not died*' are in effect '*would not have dared*' and '*would not have died*'. The other instances are different, though quite similar. The verb *to be* affords a hypothetical form *were*, which is not as near obsolete as the corresponding form of *have*. The passages cited from Tennyson and Coleridge, and the common parenthetical reflective clause '*as it were*', are instances of the use of it.

The passage cited from Bacon is, by the present rules of the language, entirely unallowable. "In a word, a man *were* better relate himself to a statue or a picture than to suffer his thoughts to pass in smother." Brown cites another passage from the same author: "You *were* better pour off the first infusion and use the latter." I could explain this only by reference to the history of our own language, and by comparison of English with other cognate languages, and by elucidation of the philosophy of the use of *have* to denote completed action: if called upon to explain it to a board of examiners or to a class in school, I should simply say that it was written in accordance with an old usage of the language by which the parts of the verb *to be* were interchanged with those of *to have*; as we find in the Bible *is gone* and *is fallen* where we would now say *has gone* and *has fallen*. Q. Q.

Note on a Guinea.—"The English people have a characteristic way of making their subscriptions for humane or useful purposes. If a person gives he does it by making his pounds and shillings equal in number. It is £5 5s., £2 2s., or £1 1s., and so on. Among thirty one subscribers to the funds of the Royal Dramatic College every one gave as many shillings as pounds. How would it look for Mr. John Jones to subscribe to a New-York charity-fund thus: \$1.01, \$5.05, etc.?"

We find the foregoing in a newspaper exchange. The explanation is simple. It was fashionable to make all subscriptions in guineas, each of which was in value one shilling over one pound. But, while the fashion has continued, the coin has disappeared from circulation, the coining of it having been discontinued in 1817; and the subscriptions that once could have been paid in guineas must now be counted and paid in pounds and shillings. ED. ILL. TEACHER.

NEW QUERIES.—*Query 45*. What poet made the remark that he 'cared not how late he came into life, only that he came fit'? F. F.

Query 46. Who has been called the 'greatest, wisest and meanest of all mankind'? F. F.

Query 47. Who wrote the celebrated romance entitled 'Utopia'? F. F.

Query 48. Who introduced the printing-press into England? F. F.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

OBJECT LESSONS FOR TEACHERS AND PARENTS. By N. A. Calkins. New York: Harper & Bros. 12mo. pp. 362. Muslin, \$1.00. With illustrations.

This is a book of which one may say much, or which may be passed with few words: to analyze the volume and speak of it in detail would require many words; but, as we can not now do that, we must pass it for the present with a general commendation of it as a book which will prove highly useful in aiding intelligent teachers and parents in teaching their little flocks from the great book of nature directly and without the intervention of leaves wrought by the arts of the printer and book-binder.

SCHOOL HISTORY OF ENGLAND. By A. B. Berard. New York: A. S. Barnes & Burr. 12mo. pp. 456.

This is a well-written history of what is the father-land of America if not of all Americans. We have read sixty or eighty pages of it with much pleasure, and, taking those pages as a sample of the book, we express our opinion of the volume in so saying. The history is, after the Norman conquest, divided into centurial periods; and the closing chapter of each period is a review of the condition of England during the century under consideration; in short, the closing chapter is a history of the civilization of the century, as the other chapters are details of its political history. This is an excellent feature of the book. It is duly fitted for stupid teachers and lazy scholars by questions at the end of the chapters: good teachers and pupils prefer books without questions. The last word in the book raises a question: Why does she call Victoria 'Victoria Guelph'? Have the royal family of England any surname? We think not; and certainly not 'Guelph'.

THE SANITARIUM. Nos. 1 and 2, April and July, 1861.

This is a monthly journal, quarto form, of sixteen pages, devoted to 'moral, mental and physical culture', edited and published by Mrs. Caroline M. Rollins, Boston, Mass. Like the other 'health journals' that we know of, it urges reforms in our modes of life as the true conditions of health, and relies upon conformity to physiological laws rather than upon medicines for cures in cases of disease. A large share of each of these numbers is devoted to articles on the education of children, and, taking the No. 2 as the true sample number, we should say that a juvenile paper is to form a part of the journal. There are few households that are either so wise or so well managed that they would not be improved by the visits of the *Sanitarium* and by the lessons that it teaches. Dr. Dio Lewis, who is now the most popular exponent of the physical-culture movement, highly recommends the paper. Terms \$1.00 a year. Address Mrs. Rollins, as above.

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ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

SEPTEMBER, 1861.

NUMBER 9.

WAR — BARBARISM — EDUCATION.

THE wiser a man or people, the less warlike. Nations which are comparatively brutal are constantly seeking and making occasions for deadly conflicts. The Spaniards delight in bull-fights; Americans, in general, would be disgusted at the spectacle. Bad tempers and animal natures love to see the execution of a culprit; good people abhor the execution and turn from the spectacle with irrepressible shuddering. The savage is for ever at war, and treaties of peace are only evidence of inability to continue the contest. War diminishes as human nature progresses.

But while one nation may be wise enough to deal justly and obviate all occasions for battle, provided its intercourse was with a power equally wise; yet, being in relations with empires of inferior developments, it is impossible as yet to avoid an occasional resort to the *ultima ratio regis*. So when a great nation, widely extended like our own, is divided into two portions with institutions and educations that are not homogeneous, it is to be expected that crises will occur in which Logic will be compelled to summon the aid of bloody Mars.

In such cases it becomes the duty of even good men to do what their souls detest—to shoulder their arms, and save not only their firesides, their families, and their country, but also to save the intellectual and moral progress that has been gained, from the overwhelming wave of barbaric fury. But there is no nation sufficiently educated yet to turn out an army of tens and hundreds of thousands without enumerating a vast proportion who feel more interest in a fight and a victory than in any principle of justice and progress, or in any duty of patriotism. The shrill fife, the rolling drum, and the trumpet's blast, wake the spirit of brutality, the desire to participate in the clangor of arms, and an impatience to unite in the shouts of glorious victo-

ry; and those who feel most of this care least about widowed mothers, orphaned children, and the endless train of consequent misery even to the triumphant party. Passions that had been held in check by the moral forces which operate in time of peace now break through all restraints, and with perhaps a majority virtue is forgotten, and every species of dissipation becomes congenial to such a moral condition.

Hence, war is barbarizing and brutalizing. Constantly thinking of and desiring scenes of carnage stimulates all the baser attributes, and consequently most of the army must suffer a very considerable moral depreciation. This is the greatest calamity of war. The burning of cities, sinking of ships, expending of millions, and killing of thousands, are not as much to be deplored as the degradation of that which is more than wealth, and friends, and even life itself,—the moral and spiritual nature of man. This degradation produces murder, and builds the gallows over the whole land, fills the penitentiaries, steals, robs, lights the torch of conflagration, and plunges the innocents of ten thousand homesteads in wretchedness, beside doubling the vast army of the besotted who annually fill a drunkard's grave.

A city can rise from its ashes; but who can reconstruct the demolished temple of the soul? Dear ones can console themselves for the loss of a beloved on the field of honorable battle by the song of *Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori*; but who can pluck out the barbed sorrow when a husband, father, or brother, sinks to disgraceful death in time of peace? The demoralization of war, we say, is its greatest calamity.

Such being the state of the case, it becomes all who have the welfare of our country at heart to consider, even in time of war, what can be done to counteract this evil, if not entirely to prevent it. If any one has heretofore taken any interest in the humanities—in the means of human advancement, in education, reform, or religion,—in stead of lapsing into quietude, to await the dawn of peace, he should gird up his loins for more-vigorous efforts in this behalf—to save what has already been gained. No society should be dissolved, no school adjourned, no lecture postponed, or sermon ungiven, that can afford additional stimulant to the flagging moral forces of the republic.

And yet (short-sighted policy!), some states have invaded their school-funds for the sinews of war; and unless they be warned in time other states will be guilty of the same folly, under pretext of diminishing the burden of taxation. An effort was made by some leading members of the Ohio Legislature to reduce the school-tax to one-third of the present rate; but it failed, only to be pressed to a successful issue at the next session unless a strong popular voice warns them against the desecration. In stead of war being an occasion for dimin-

ished expense and slackened efforts in education, it increases the necessity for levying more and doing more in this cause, for the purpose of correcting its evils. This should be considered an indispensable part of the expense of war itself.

Who are you who demand a reduction of the school-tax? It is not the poor, for they take little or no part in public affairs: they do nothing through legislation for themselves, every thing is done for them. It must be the property-holders who complain; and of these it can not be those of small estates, for their tax is light, scarcely worth noticing. The cry of retrenchment in school expenditures must come from the rich, to whom let a few considerations be addressed.

(1.) It is claimed by many that all the school-tax paid by the rich is levied by them upon the poor, who are compelled to foot all the bills at last. If this be so, the rich lose nothing by it, and it is a very certain method of making the poor do what they otherwise would not perform, to wit, save the money necessary for the common-school instruction of their children. It is known that neither the improvident nor even any who are dependent upon small wages would save any thing for this purpose, because even the bare comforts for a family amount to more than they ever obtain for a year's work. But by taxing the rich who can pay, and the rich levying it upon the poor in the shape of diminished wages, it amounts to so much laid up for their children—laid up in education, which is better than a small property with heathenish ignorance.

(2.) Let us ask the rich whether the nation, state or neighborhood is the richest which expends the least in education. Is it not always the poorest? Are not the savages the poorest of earth's population? They expend nothing on school-houses and teachers. All the way from savageism to the highest enlightenment, they are the richest who are the most-intelligent, and they are the wisest who have the best schools. Therefore, let the rich be advised that in diminishing the school-tax they are impoverishing the state, while by increasing it they are enhancing the wealth of their country. As certain as an intelligent man can produce four times as much with the same labor as an ignorant man, so certain education enriches and ignorance impoverishes.

(3.) Let us suggest to the rich, again, that if it is the large war debt which induces their complaint of the school-tax, that this war debt is solely incurred on their account. Wm. B. Astor offers to give four millions, and to loan the government ten millions; but this is not liberality, for did he and all the rich refuse to do any thing they would lose all they have, or at least it would be divided by two. At the South it is property that has created the war—the civil war, the fratricidal war,—property in man; and at the North the challenge to arms

is accepted because the northern system makes the rich richer than the southern system; and being more favorable to education, there is more talent liberated to apply to the resources of nature in the accumulation of wealth. As the war was commenced by and is waged for the rich, they should have more self-respect than to retrench the school-tax because it costs them so much to preserve their wealth. The system that made them rich produced the war.

(4.) Let the rich be reminded, again, that it is the poor who lose the most by the war. Those of them who volunteer receive low wages, endure nearly all the hardships, and are exposed to the greatest dangers. They shoulder the knapsack and musket, and march on foot; while the rich are on horseback, enjoying the high consideration of all, winning glory and obtaining high pay for their services. There is some difference between twelve dollars and eight hundred dollars per month, some difference between the pay of a private and a captain. The rich can hire a poor man to fight in his stead in case a conscription should be made. What is paying a few dollars in contrast with shouldering arms, marching, sleeping on the ground, being shot at, killed, or crippled?

Now, will the rich look at it? The poor make them their wealth in time of peace, and at small pay, with great exposure and risk, defend that property in time of war; and then they manifest their gratitude by growling at the school-tax, levied for the sake of a little justice to the children of the poor! This is at least an equivocal method of showing their patriotism. Down with the narrow thought. Keep it before the people that, however long the war may continue, the school-tax must not be retrenched. Should we demolish the school-houses the nation would soon be unable to pay the war debt; and then would follow a revolution, a confiscation of property, and a king on the throne.

L. A. HINE, in *Journal of Progress* for June.

A B E N E D I C T I O N .

PEACE to Christ's little ones,	Cherish the little ones,	Guard ye the little ones;
Lambs of his love!	Teacher and friend;	Evil is nigh;
Watch o'er them tenderly;	On in your mission-work,	Dim is their destiny,
Guide them above.	True to the end.	Stormy their sky.
Sweetest of benisons	Earnestly, prayerfully,	Danger and suffering
To them be given,—	Lead the young soul	Darken the way:
Heirs of eternity,	Up to its radiant	Watch ye the little ones,
Children of Heaven.	Birthright and goal.	Watch ye, and pray!

H. B. N.

LIFE AND EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF PESTALOZZI.*

WE Americans are accustomed to regard the year 1775 as the dawn of our nation's greatness. Liberty then reared her fair proportions before the proud front of tyranny; but how long could she have held the position which she then gained if the cause of popular education had been left in the position in which it then was throughout the whole world? During that famous year John Henry Pestalozzi, a deep thinker and an enthusiastic philanthropist, opened a school for poor children at Neuhof, in Switzerland, and inaugurated and carried through a reform in teaching as beneficial to the cause of education as that of Luther was to religion.

The common-school teachers of Switzerland and of the rest of the world, at that time, were the rudest men of a rude age, who performed their labors in a monotonous, lifeless manner, and governed by the most-barbarous systems of punishment. As a matter of course, the children learned more of vice and crime than of virtue, and each generation left the school-room worse than the preceding. No text-books were used except those on religion, and no pains was taken to awaken thought in the child. The teacher's calling was considered dishonorable; men with very little education, and no special training for their duties, filled the places of true teachers, crushed out all the natural inquisitiveness of the children, and met their innocent, thoughtless mirth with unreasonable severities.

After mature reflection, Pestalozzi came to the conclusion that the great want of Switzerland, and the world, was a class of men who should not only teach thoroughly, but develop into healthy activity all the good qualities of the rising generation. He therefore determined to train up such a class, and devoted himself to the work with perfect faith in the ultimate success of his theories.

For five years he tested his experiment at Neuhof, with remarkable success in an educational point of view, but failed for financial reasons. Between 1782 and 1798 he wrote several books, chiefly with a view to awaken the public mind to the importance of correct elementary teaching, and succeeded better than any writer before or since on the same subject. In 1798 and '99 we find him teaching in the Swiss territory, where the fierce conflict is raging between the French and

* Commencement Essay, Normal University, July 3, 1861. By J. HOWARD BURNHAM, of Cook County, Illinois.

Austrians, and setting an example for future educators, by resolutely maintaining his school till the building is actually taken for a hospital. In 1810 he is engaged in developing his system on a large scale in an institution near Neufchatel, and his school is crowded with pupils from every part of Europe, and has some even from America.

At Neufchatel he acquired his world-wide reputation; although candor compels me to say that it arose more from the attention drawn to his institution by his writings and reports than from his own actual good teaching. Like many other reformers, he was not content to let his real services speak for him. In order to thoroughly convince the public, he managed to pass off, by a system of deceit in modern language called humbug, his best classes as samples of what his system of instruction would do for all. This has severely injured his fame, and reveals the painful fact that he was not the pure-minded, zealous man we should like to regard him. Pestalozzi himself said afterward "We announced publicly things which we had neither the strength nor the means to accomplish. There are hundreds and hundreds of these vain boastings of which I do not like to speak."

But it may be asked Why is it that his name remains so high on the list of educators? The answer must be that Pestalozzi, like Watt and Fulton, deserves the credit of having originated correct ideas. His *theory* was right, though he himself was unable to combine his theory with good practice. His most-ardent admirers are unable to agree what was his central idea of education. Perhaps it is contained in the following as nearly as in any brief statement he has left: "Education ought to be free and natural, gradual and progressive, united in all its parts like a chain, and forming a continued series without gaps." His aim was to follow nature; and he saw that nature taught the child by degrees—by elements, so to speak,—and hence he conceived the idea of reducing all instruction to the elements of Language, Form, and Number. These three he aimed to bring before the child in the simplest manner possible, gradually and progressively leading him on to higher and higher steps, so that he can look back and see that nothing is left out which he will need in rising to the loftiest summits of human intelligence. Language by itself becomes words without ideas; but Pestalozzi aimed to combine language with thoughts of form and number, so that the child should gain living, useful ideas of objects with which he comes in contact in his daily life. Any one who has visited the best of our American primary schools can see the ideas of the great Swiss educator carried out with a great many Yankee improvements. The children are kept interested, their young minds trained to inquire into the causes of things, and they are taught

to become independent thinkers, so that in after-life they easily learn to reason almost perfectly, without special attention to that subject while their time should be spent in acquiring knowledge.

The Pestalozzian system accords beautifully with our spirit of free inquiry; and hence we find that those teachers who follow it are the most-successful. They do not, however, succeed in the manner he expected; for, although by his theory nature was to be followed, in his practice he would not allow teachers to exercise their individual natural right of judgment, but required them to use his Compendium, which they were to follow implicitly.

With all his faults, the great and good deeds of his life stand boldly out to view. No man ever labored more resolutely for good in opposition to the pride, prejudice and self-will of a superficially-educated, supremely-ignorant population.

The crying evil of the present day, in spite of all the light that has poured upon this country from Switzerland and the Fatherland, the great mill-stone that weighs down the cause of popular education, is still superficial teaching. The elements are lost sight of, and our young men and women crowd the higher seminaries of learning without ever reaching the groundwork, the subsoil of the common branches; and the result is that their ideas of the higher branches never acquire that richness and ripeness that will fit them to understand and enjoy the beauties of nature and treasures of science that come within their reach. When these ill-trained pupils become teachers, they perpetuate the evil in an aggravated form; and hence it is that it at least holds its ground, in spite of all that has been done for the cause of elementary instruction within the last few years. The Pestalozzian system is recognized by all great educators as the basis of good teaching. It is the firm and sure foundation on which must be raised the glorious structure of Popular Education, of which this institution is a part of the scaffolding, and its students a part of the artisans.

J A N E T T E ' S T E A C H E R .

"COME, Janette, it is school-time." "Just let me finish this story, Mother: the teacher won't care if I am late; she is often late herself; yesterday it was quarter-past nine by the town clock when she came." "Lay aside the story, Janette, and prepare for school. See that you perform your duties faithfully. Miss Appleton must answer for herself." "But, Mother,"—"No more now: I'll hear you after school.

Janette came joyfully home from school, shouting "No school to-morrow, and I'm so glad." "Why?" "Oh, the teacher is going to the beach; but, Mother, I do think it is wrong: if I were the teacher I would not always be going some where. Last Wednesday she dismissed at eleven to take a boat-ride, and every Saturday she dismisses early on account of some '*engagement*'. We always have a nice play before school begins in the morning, especially if there has been a dance the night before. It all suits me well enough, and the scholars do n't complain; but I do n't think it just right, after all." "Do the scholars all get there in season?" "They get there by the time the teacher does; but she never marks tardy unless we are *very* late."

Has Janette's teacher any conscience? Is it true that a *few minutes* will make no particular difference? Then if a scholar misses a few questions in every lesson every day, if he whispers a few times, if he cracks a few nuts with his feet, and throws a few shells about, and does a few other similar acts, to such a teacher it will make no difference. A teacher that does not aim to do every thing just right will probably do nothing right.

L. A. L., in N. H. Jour. of Educ., June, 1861.

A TEACHER'S COMPOSITION.

MR. EDITOR: Some time ago a portion of my pupils, all of whom are frequently required to prepare and read compositions, requested me to write one and to read the same when the time set apart for the reading of compositions should again arrive. I then complied with the request; and to-day, since the receipt of the last number of the *Teacher*, having learned that some of your correspondents have neglected you, I have concluded to send you a copy of what I at that time said, thinking you may, perhaps, deem it worthy a place in the columns of the *Teacher*.

J. P. S.

A MODEL SCHOOL.

SCHOLARS, you doubtless remember that not long since, at your request, I promised to write a composition and to read the same when the exercise of reading compositions should again occur. I will now proceed to fulfill that promise.

From the many subjects that have occurred to me as being appropriate, I have chosen, I was about to say, a very familiar one—that we are the subject; but should I say this I would assert more than I

ought, for I must remind you that it is not my purpose to describe, or even speak of, ourselves any farther than we may chance to correspond with the subject I have chosen. As I proceed, you will doubtless observe wherein we are wanting in what is deemed necessary to constitute a model school, or, what means the same, one so perfect in all its bearings and operations as to prove an example deserving the notice and consideration of all who are concerned in the establishment of good schools, an example worthy of imitation. To give you a proper idea of a building so constructed as to be called a model for convenience, I should describe its various parts, and thus show wherein it differed from and excelled others. In a similar manner shall I attempt to point out briefly the characteristics of a model school.

The teacher and pupils, as you all know, compose the school; and they, it may be said, determine its character. I do not, however, forget the fact that parents also, indirectly, exert a powerful influence upon the school, and do much toward lessening or increasing its efficiency. But I propose now to speak only of the teacher and pupils.

It has been said, and with much truth too, "As the teacher, so the school"; yet I would add to that saying and make it read "As the teacher and the pupils, so the school." It is true that the judicious and earnest teacher can do much, very much, toward elevating and determining the character of a school, even though its pupils, as a class, are justly ranked with the worst and most-troublesome of scholars; but how much more could he accomplish, and what far nobler results could he achieve, with the assistance and hearty coöperation of a class of scholars who, bent upon doing only what is right, are striving to make the greatest possible advancement. Let me first speak of the teacher—such a one as I deem necessary to the existence of the kind of school under consideration. He will in his dealings with children remember that he was once young; and keeping this fact in mind he will ever be ready to overlook and excuse their venial faults, or at least he will not censure such too severely. Yet, while he remembers the nature of youth and holds himself in readiness at all times to pardon such faults as will admit of pardon, he will let none pass unnoticed that deserve correction. He will not fail at the proper time to reprove those who err, to point out their errors, and to show how they may in the future be avoided. Whatever he observes that is wrong or that has an evil tendency he will not hesitate to expose, though at times an unpleasant task, if by so doing a useful lesson may be taught. In all he says he will be earnest and conscientious, and he will show that he is by his acts. But on this point I must be brief, as I wish more particularly to speak of the MODEL SCHOLAR.

I will commence by describing him negatively—that is, by telling you what he is not. He is not anxious to bring himself into notice by ascertaining experimentally how much he can do and say by way of causing disorder and annoyance and yet escape punishment; nor is he desirous to excel his schoolmates in the performance of any low or mean act. We some times find such pupils who, perhaps by carelessness and neglect, having failed to distinguish themselves as good scholars, are now seeking distinction in another way—by leading and engaging in acts of disobedience and sin. I would ask why they do thus. Some may answer They hope thereby to attract attention, to be called brave and daring. Well, I can assure you such pupils *will* be noticed; aye, more, they will be remembered when their youth and school-day opportunities are for ever past. They will then be viewed in another and a true light, which will disclose to beholders, in stead of bravery, a sad weakness in not being able to resist and overcome these evil inclinations. It matters not how such inclinations in children may at the time be viewed, there is something in them of fearful import. These beginnings and first acts of life, unless speedily checked or changed, will in later years form, as it were, a part of the character—become so fixed as to baffle all but the most-determined efforts at removal. Remember that the character and habits of men and women are, with few exceptions, if not identical with, at least similar to, those formed and possessed in youth. A correct history of the early period of life is, in general, a very safe index of the remaining portion. The model scholar is not selfish: he does not desire to have his own way regardless of the feelings of others. Should he receive a merited reproof, in stead of showing signs of anger, he will show by his future conduct that he strives to remember and profit by it. He will be attentive, and careful to give no cause for trouble or unnecessary labor to either teacher or schoolmates. Whether in or out of school, he will be open and frank in his dealings with every one, also respectful, kind, and obliging, never pretending to be what he is not. He will not say he understands his lesson when he is uncertain; nor will he willingly deceive any one. When he is anxious to learn, his conduct, appearance and every act, as well as his words, will tell it, and in language so forcible that none can misunderstand.

Such a scholar will not day after day in succession appear to be the poorest one in his class. I do not wish to intimate by this that I think he will always have perfect lessons: no, not by any means; for it is often the case that some scholars labor under great disadvantages. While others receive assistance and encouragement at home, they may, on account of having much to do while out of school, or for want of

some one competent to assist them, receive none; or they may not previously have been as well taught, and for this reason they may not as well understand what they have formerly studied, nor as easily comprehend what they are now studying. Yet the determined scholar will in time usually overcome such difficulties; or, in other words, he will succeed in spite of them. He will aim, under all circumstances, to do the best he possibly can, and he will continue to do so whether his endeavors are noticed or not. To such a scholar, even if none should ever know or applaud his efforts, the consciousness of having done the best he possibly could will prove an abundant reward.

Thus have I briefly indicated the character and pointed out some of the peculiar traits which I think will distinguish the members of a model school. Will you not, scholars, think of what I have said, and in whatever respects you find there is room for improvement will you not strive to profit by your knowledge? I trust that you will: and let me assure you that in doing so you shall have the assistance of your teacher, who by study and reflection will also strive to improve.

CONVERSATIONS WITH AN OLD SCHOOLMASTER.*

METHOD IN RECITALIONS—*Continued.*—"You mean, then, that a teacher is to study his lessons, and especially to methodize his own ideas, and thus to prepare what he is to communicate very carefully?"

"Exactly so," said he. "He is to study what he has to say with as much care and arrange it all as rigidly and as systematically as the man who wrote the book arranged his thoughts. Here is where teachers fail, particularly young teachers. They do not arrange or systematize. And yet", said he after a slight pause, "I do not know but that I will withdraw a part of my last remark. I think older teachers are almost as apt to be loose in their sentences and instructions as are those who are younger. Why, I know a man who talks to his scholars with hundreds of superfluous words, and such numerous repetitions of the pronoun personal that it is really tedious to listen to him. A teacher ought often to use the pen and learn the art of condensation, for the purpose of acquiring the habit of making neat and

* This conversation should follow the one given in our June number, and the one in our July number should have preceded that. But they are good in any order.

perspicuous sentences, so that he can assure himself whether his grammatical arrangement is correct, and so that he can rearrange and prepare for a better construction."

"This", said I, "is making a teacher do a large amount of study and work in the preparation."

"To be sure it is," replied he. Who ever expected that a teacher should not work, and work hard too? It is his business to do more thinking than any other man in the community; and he is to do this thinking in the most-methodical manner possible, for the particular reason that he is to communicate his ideas, and to train other minds to methodical thought by his own will and discipline."

"You give us a hard task, to beat every body in the community at this hardest and rarest of works—thinking."

"To be sure I do. This is what a teacher undertakes. He pledges himself, or ought to, to instruct the youth of the land in the art of thinking, and he ought to be an expert at it: just as a teacher of fencing ought to be an expert in that business, or a teacher of writing an expert in that. This trained and practiced art of thinking should appear in his recitations, and should induce the same methodical habit in all who are with him; and he should be able to induce such a habit without any apparent attempts to do it. A fire never seems to make any attempts to heat a room. It burns joyfully, trying to do one thing—to consume the material on which it has fastened. But in doing this well it does also produce other effects. So a teacher should come to his recitations with a relish, aiming only to do the one thing, and to do it well. He should be thoroughly prepared, and have every thing systematized and arranged with a view to a higher end—never, however, letting that end appear. To resume the illustration a moment ago stated, the fire has no higher end than to burn and consume material; but the fire-builder had a higher end in view, and he arranged his means to secure that end. So while the teacher is hearing recitations he has, or should have, only one end in view. That end may be at the time to communicate information, or it may be to produce discipline. And if he at this moment thinks of no other object he will undoubtedly best accomplish what he is laboring for. But he also stands to himself, as a mere conductor of recitations, in the same relation that the fire-builder does to the fire. He must previously have arranged all these means for a given end, and then that end will be brought out apparently as additional or incidental, while in fact it is the main thing had in view from the very beginning."

"What, then, do you say, Erastus, should be the mode of conducting recitations?"

"I did not mean to enter very largely upon that subject. I only meant to hint that every thing should be prepared for the recitation beforehand, and that this should be prepared with a well-considered plan; for this subject of recitations is one of the most-important things that can occupy the attention of a teacher."

"But", said I, "you do not mean to say that recitations are more-important than government, do you?"

"Yes, I do, at least in one sense. They are often—and the work of preparing them is only the root of them—the very basis of government. Neither a family, a school, nor a nation, can be governed without business or regular employment. Now in a school, and indeed every where else, there can be no systematic work without some careful examination of what is done or produced."

"How do you mean?"

"Now if we have men at work in making shoes, or hoes, or wagons, the process must be the same exactly. We must examine the work and the workman, to see if the work is well done and the workman is honest and skillful. Nor is the case at all changed if the work done is mental, or *thought-work*. We must then examine the work of thinking to see if it be done properly and rightly; to ascertain if the thought produced is true, if it is the one proper for the place, and if it legitimately grows out of the one before it. Then more-especially must we examine the verbal expression for that thought as to the words used and their construction into sentences. And lastly and most-especially we must examine the thinker himself, to see if he has done all that he ought to do and by the correct method."

"I hardly see how you will apply this to recitations and other school work," said I.

"Why, in this way," said he, smiling. "Is not every lesson given out to be learned a task to be done? and is not the truth or the idea formed from it a product, in some respects at least, similar to the product of a mine as gold or silver discovered and dug out?"

"Perhaps," said I.

"Perhaps? Why perhaps?"

"Because I am not quite sure that thought or ideas can be measured or weighed, like so many yards of cloth or bushels of potatoes, or so much gold or iron, or beef or pork."

"Most-certainly not. But they are surely the products of the mind just as the gun or wagon, before named, is the product of the hand. And we are as certainly endowed with faculties capable of examining these mental or thought products as we are possessed of senses and powers able to weigh and measure the material products of our handi-

craft skill. When we have thought, we can stop and examine both the product of thinking and the process by which we reached it."

"I am not", said I, "so much desirous of a philosophical analysis as I am of a practical answer to a question started a long time ago—'How shall a recitation be conducted?'"

"That answer will depend very much upon what we say about the philosophy of the thing; or, in other words, upon the subject of recitation, the character of the one reciting, and the end had in view in his learning."

"So we said before. But how are we to examine the product of the child's mind? for I think it is the drift of your remarks that we are in our recitations to examine this, and it is not material."

"How would you examine a musket?"

"But that is material. Yet I would apply a line of measure, to be sure it had the proper length, circumference of barrel, bore, and stock. I would weigh it to find the amount of metal, and I would test its strength and accuracy by firing it."

"Bravely said. Now I would examine a scholar's thought in a manner precisely similar, only in stead of the line as a rule or measure I would use the *point* of interrogation. I would ask him about the exact ideas, and then the precise words, then the meaning of those words, and finally I would inquire as to the extent and limit of the thought in the lesson to be learned, till I was satisfied he not only *knew but could tell it*."

"Would you ask questions, or compel him to repeat from memory?"

"Chiefly I would ask questions. The question or *interrogation point* is the most-potent implement a teacher can wield. It is better than the rod, or even than a reward. It is more-effective than a lecture, or than even a scolding. It is applicable to every thing and to every occasion. And the teacher who knows how to use it is master of his profession. Yet how many are there who do not know how to ask questions! They are neither Yankees nor Westerners in spirit, no matter what may have been the locality of their birth. To know what is a question is not a small accomplishment; to know how to frame one that shall not tell its answer and shall nevertheless suggest a thought is a greater art; but to make questions that shall, in the first place, bring before the mind of the scholar the truth he has learned, and shall, secondly, teach him a higher truth, is the most-difficult of all tasks. But, in addition, to make a series of questions such as shall exhaust every paragraph and sentence of any given topic, and shall show their connection and dependence, is an evidence of the highest degree of pedagogic skill."

"I find a great difference among teachers in their manner of asking questions; more by far than in the explanations which they give of the topics and processes in recitations."

"There is the same difference here as elsewhere, only the neatness or slovenliness of a teacher's questions appears more-manifestly than almost any other part of his work, saving only his government."

"How would you ask questions? for I must recur to my *point* once more."

"I am in doubt how to answer you: not because I have not a theory on this subject; nor yet because I have not practiced upon it; but rather because my theory and practice may possibly mislead some body who shall attempt to do exactly as I do. Any one who will not think carefully and accurately enough about a theory to change it in some points to adapt it to his own mental and habitual peculiarities will often be damaged by having a theory given to him. I will, however, try to accommodate you and run the risk of hurting you.

"Your request to tell how to ask questions properly divides its answer into parts: What form and body shall a question take? and What shall be the manner of putting these questions to a class in recitations? As to the questions themselves, there are several requisites. Firstly, a question should be brief: if it is not it will be too hard for the scholar to remember the whole of it, and of course he can not reply to every part in its proper order. Secondly, it should be so framed that no part of it, save possibly the leading word indicating the topic, can be used in the answer. These two requisites apply to each question taken singly. But in every recitation there must be a series of questions; and this series will demand two other things, to wit: No question ought to include what another has asked, unless the teacher, as he will occasionally, designs to repeat or emphasize something already gone over; and The whole series should completely exhaust the subject under consideration. In addition, or rather presupposed in all cases, the words in which a question is couched, and their arrangement, should be simple, precise, perspicuous, and correct as to syntax and logic.

"Now as to the other part of your request—How shall questions be put to a class? The teacher must have studied his lesson, not only to find out its meaning, but also to know how to ask questions upon it. And when his class is before him he should ask a question distinctly and pertinently, looking at no member of his class, and after a pause long enough for every one to have thought of the answer he should indicate the one who is to answer and wait a proper time for a reply. If no reply is given, he should never repeat the question, but call upon another—not the one sitting by the first—for the answer: and so

go on till the whole topic has been exhausted in all its branches and connections. The questioner will add, as he goes along, as many comments, illustrations or remarks of his own as may seem necessary; but he should never bring in matter totally unconnected and irrelevant to what is taught. The result of this mode of asking questions will be that every scholar will answer every question in his own mind and will be attentive to every thing that comes up; and if any one, in any part of the class, becomes careless, the point of interrogation should be at once applied to him, asking if the last answer given was correct; what it was; and what should have been added or left out to make it perfect. Such a mode of questioning in a large class may become very exciting, and will keep every mind on the keenest stretch of thought. But the teacher must never let any one of the class know, even by a look or a movement of the head, who is to be called on till the name is given out; and then let it be understood that he must answer or be disgraced. Do not let your questions be indistinctly spoken, and do not tolerate any indistinct, mumbling, half-conceived, stammering answers. Secure in your own case clearness of ideas, perspicuity and definiteness of language, and distinctness of enunciation, for all your questions, and demand that your scholars shall imitate you in all these particulars."

"I think", said I, "that I understand you and shall profit by this very long conversation. Shall we not talk again?"

"With all my heart; but on another topic, if you please."

ROBERT ALLYN, in *Ohio Educational Monthly* for July, 1861.

E L E M E N T A R Y L I T E R A T U R E .

THE world is suffering under a flood of books got up expressly for the benefit of children and youth. Scores of second-rate minds, ambitious of imparting their knowledge and thought, and perhaps sensible of their comparative unfitness to address the maturer intellects of men and women, are continually turning to the field of so-called juvenile literature to find a suitable sphere for the exercise of their talents. Thus we are met on every hand by books for beginners—books designed to simplify the principles of science to the understanding of the young, and to reduce thought to the level of their capacities.

The value of this class of writings is of course various: while some are so very simple as to disgust those for whom they are intended, and

others so admirable as to be the almost equal delight of young and old, the majority have, perhaps, no very decided character, as is to be expected of works making no claim to originality, but only aiming to present in a popular and attractive form the discoveries and sentiments of original thinkers.

Passing by the probable good accomplished by this multitude of books for elementary instruction and entertainment, let us consider for a moment the disadvantages of placing in the hands of the young, for study or perusal, works giving at second-hand the information originally presented by a superior class of books.

Persons of any considerable reading can not have failed to notice in how much more clear, forcible and intelligible a manner opinions, sentiments and truths are placed before the reader's mind by writers to whom they belong by original thought or discovery than by others who have no right to them but that of acceptance, and who only aim to interpret and popularize them. The reason of this is evident. The processes, often severe and toilsome, by which the searcher for new truths reaches his object, the patient going-over again and again all the approaches to the subject in hand, so familiarizes the whole matter to his mind that when he comes to speak of it he does so with ease, and naturally employs the plainest, simplest language in announcing and explaining his discovery. Whatever additions subsequent investigations may make, the central idea of any science or system is not likely ever to be stated with such directness and distinctness as by its founder; for no other can be said to have such intimate and thorough acquaintance with it, and it is to be supposed that one who understands a thing best will communicate it best to others.

The opposite notion, that the appreciative disciple will make the principles or doctrines of his master more-intelligible to the common mind than the master himself is the excuse for a large proportion of the book-making now and for years past going on.

That the proposal to play the interpreter between the great teachers and the mass of learners is quite gratuitous, so far as any desire on the part of the former to be so explained is concerned, no one will be disposed to deny; while the encouragement the latter continually receive in their efforts to simplify and reduce to common comprehension the ideas of their masters is due to the fact that the studying and reading world have fallen into the belief that they are not endowed with minds capable of receiving those ideas as originally enunciated.

And this leads us to speak of the greatest disadvantage the use of juvenile books is likely to prove to us: it tends to frighten us away from better books. If one had courage and resolution to break through

the dread of great authors which an exclusive acquaintance with inferior ones implies, the harm of studying only those of the latter class in early life might be in a considerable measure repaired in later years; but to such an extent does the ordinary system of education increase our awe of great names that too often we content ourselves with drinking from the lesser streams of thought and knowledge rather than attempt (what seems too bold an undertaking) to reach the highest sources of human wisdom. But if, as we supposed above, the discoverers in science and the great masters of thought communicate themselves more-successfully than others can speak for them, what hinders our going directly to them for instruction? We surely do ourselves wrong if we accept any thing less than the best teaching we can obtain.

The only necessity for the great proportion of elementary books of science arises from children being set to study at a very early age; but we deny that there is really any thing gained by such a course. When boys and girls are old enough to undertake with profit Geography, History, Mathematics, Language, etc., they are sure to get the best help from the best writers.

A., in Moore's Rural New-Yorker.

S P E L L I N G .

IT seems reasonable to expect that most of our youth on leaving school should be good spellers; and yet facts, which are called stubborn things, prove that such is not the case. We propose to give two or three reasons for the unsatisfactory results obtained in this branch, and to offer a few suggestive hints, which, we hope, will tend to invest the subject with more interest on the part of both teachers and pupils.

One cause of the frequency of poor spelling may be found in the neglect with which the spelling-lesson is treated in school. It is often crowded into a few minutes, and passed over in a very hurried and imperfect manner, and if any exercise is to be omitted the spelling-lesson is the neglected one. Another cause may be found in a feeling, not very uncommon, that spelling is undeserving the attention of any but very young pupils. Many feel as the young man did who, on commencing a course at an academy, demurred at the idea of joining the spelling-class, notwithstanding he was a very poor speller. On being informed that all the pupils were required to join in the exercise, he very condescendingly consented to do so, provided the words

should be taken from Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, feeling that it would be quite derogatory if they should be selected from any spelling- or reading-book. These and some other erroneous notions must be eradicated. From the beginning, let pupils see that the spelling-lesson will receive its due share of attention, and at its due time, and also cause them to feel that to spell poorly is really derogatory to the standing of a scholar. There are two very common errors in the mode of conducting a spelling-exercise which tend to make poor spellers.

One is that of giving out the words with an improper pronunciation, or an undue emphasis on a particular syllable or vowel: as in-ti-mate, in-hab-ĭ-tant, im-me-di-āte-ly, sep-ā-rate, sim-ĭ-lar-ĭ-ty, op-ē-ra-tion, etc. The only correct way is to pronounce a word precisely as it would be spoken by a good speaker, giving no undue emphasis to any letter or syllable; and if distinctly pronounced once it should suffice.

Another common error is that of allowing pupils to try more than once on a word in oral spelling. This is wrong. One trial is sufficient, and all beyond is mere guessing. If pupils feel that they may make two or three attempts to spell a word they will never become accurate spellers.

Some are strong advocates for the use of the spelling-book, while others entirely reject its use. While we would not entirely discard the use of the spelling-book, we would say to the teacher If you would make a spelling-lesson truly interesting and profitable, you must draw exercises from every proper source. It is an excellent plan to devote some time daily—a few minutes will suffice—to spelling the names of familiar objects. Ask your pupils to give you the names of all the objects they saw on the way to school, and, as they repeat, write the words legibly upon the blackboard, and say to them that the list thus written will constitute the next spelling-lesson. Let us suppose the following to be a list of the words given by pupils as names of objects they have seen on the way to school:

horse	saddle	whip	mail-coach	cart
wagon	collar	axletree	trunk	plow
harness	wheel	barrel	box	shovel
bridle	carriage	teamster	oxen	harrow

Now, that you may call particular attention to these words, spend five minutes in making some of them subjects for object-lessons, somewhat as follows:*

* In asking questions in this way we would not often allow concert answers. Let all who feel prepared to answer raise the hand, and then let some one be designated to give his answer, after which others who have a different definition may be called upon.

Teacher.—What is the meaning of harness?

Pupil.—It is something put on horses for them to draw by.

Teacher.—Of what is it made?

Pupil.—Of leather. (Here you may expand the subject by asking what leather is, how made, and why better for making harnesses than rope or other materials, etc.)

Teacher.—What are some of the principal parts of a harness?

Pupil.—*Collar, hames, saddle, bridle, and traces.*

Teacher.—What is some times used in stead of a collar?

Pupil.—*Breastplate.*

It will readily be seen that such an exercise may be extended almost indefinitely, and be made interesting and profitable. If desirable to add to the number of words given in the columns above, the italicized words will be very good ones. The word *wheel* may be taken, and treated somewhat as follows:

Teacher.—What is a wheel?

Pupil.—A round frame which turns round.

Teacher.—On what does it turn?

Pupil.—On its axis; we say a wagon-wheel turns on an axletree.

Teacher.—Yes; but not *axletree*, as some say. Can you name the parts of a wheel?

Pupil.—*Hub or nave, felloe or felly, spokes, tire.*

Here you may call for a description of each, and explain the process of setting tire, etc. You may also question them on the different kinds of wheels which they have seen or heard of, etc.

The word *mail-coach* may be taken and explained. So, too, *box, wagon, barrel, axletree*, may each be made a topic for a lesson. For variety's sake, as well as for profit, suppose you call upon pupils to name sentences containing the word *box*. The following may be the examples given:

The driver sat upon the *box* of the coach.

The walk had a border of *box*.

John kept his money in a *box*.

The boy received a *box* on the ear.

Sailors can *box* the compass.

This will be sufficient to explain our meaning. Your active mind will readily expand the exercise, and make it highly interesting and instructive. Such questions in connection with the spelling-lesson will do much to give it life and meaning; and with such exercises, well devised and continued, pupils will become good spellers, though they may never study the spelling-book for an hour. The words thus

selected can be left upon the blackboard until within a few minutes of the time for spelling them.

At another time you may collect a list of words from the school-room, as follows :

book	inkstand	philosophy	penmanship
library	desk	astronomy	composition
arithmetic	platform	physiology	declamation
geography	blackboard	botany	orthography
grammar	crayon	aisle	discipline
dictionary	shelf	ventilator	paper
slate	chair	furnace	scholar
pencil	algebra	recitation	teacher

The names of objects which pupils may see at their respective homes may constitute a list sufficiently long for two or three lessons, and include such articles as may be found in nearly every house. These names will be the very words all should know how to spell, and yet such as are very frequently misspelled. The articles kept for sale in different kinds of stores would also form a very appropriate and long list. The names of the various trees to be found in the gardens, fields, and forests, and the names of flowers, would also be fruitful sources from which to draw many useful spelling- and object-lessons.

Make a drawing of some familiar object upon the blackboard as the basis of a spelling-lesson : for example, the picture of a book. Call upon your pupils to name the different parts of the book, and you will get something like the following :

outside	page	quarto (4to)	words
inside	preface	octavo (8vo)	sentences
binding	title-page	duodecimo (12mo)	paragraphs
leaves	running-title	contents	printing
margin	folio	letters	stereotyping

Let us suppose you call upon your pupils to give the names of the different trees they have seen, and the following are given and written upon the blackboard : oak, walnut, elm, chestnut, hemlock, birch, cedar, pine, spruce, maple, beech, locust, ash, sycamore, poplar, willow, cypress, fir, larch, apple, pear, plum, peach, cherry, mulberry, apricot. After these are distinctly written, ask questions like the following :

Which of the trees named are fruit-bearing? Which produce nuts? For what purposes is the *oak* valuable? How many kinds of oak, and what called? For what is the *walnut* valuable? Which of the trees named are most prized as ornamental trees? Which are most valuable for building purposes?

After calling for the uses and properties of the different trees, let

the names be studied for a future spelling-lesson. The same course may be pursued in regard to flowers, shrubs, vegetables, etc.

At another time you may make a plain drawing of a house.

Teacher.—Can you tell me the names of some of the parts of a house?

Pupil.—Roof, eaves, ridgepole, cornice, doors, windows, chimney, rafters, sill, sash, parlor, kitchen, pantry, cupboard, closet, sitting-room, chamber, garret, cellar, stairs, hall or entry, piazza.

Teacher.—Can you name some of the materials used in building houses?

Pupils.—Timber, joist, boards, laths, nails, lime, brick, clapboards, shingles, glass, paint, screws, hinges, stone, zinc, etc.

The particular use of each of these objects or materials may be explained at the same time that its name is spelled. A prominent advantage in these methods is that it connects the subject of spelling with actual objects and gives it a meaning and a force. Pupils trained in this way will soon form the habit of spelling the name of every object they meet with, and the exercise will cease to be an unmeaning and uninteresting one. Teacher, will you give these hints your thoughtful attention?

Conn. Common-School Journal, June, 1861.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—*Prob. I in July No.* In 1835 a premium of \$50 was offered for the most 'lucid analytical solution' of this problem, and a committee was appointed to examine the solutions presented and award the premium. 112 solutions were presented, of which 48 were correct. The committee excluded further those solutions which were algebraical and all which were performed by *position* or *proportion*, retaining for the comparative examination only those which were strictly analytical. The following solution, by Mr. James Robinson, then of the Bowdoin School, Boston, received the premium.

"It is evident that a part of the given number of oxen, in each condition of this question, must be supported by the grass *at first standing* on the given number of acres, and that the remaining part must be supported by the *growth*. It is also evident that the number of oxen that can be supported by the grass at first standing on the ground must be in a direct ratio to the number of acres, and in an inverse ratio to the time of grazing. And it is further obvious that the number

of oxen that can be supported by the growth of the grass must be in a direct ratio to the number of acres, without any regard to the *time* of grazing; for the number of oxen that would consume the growth of any number of acres during any given time would consume the same growth continually.

"By the first condition of the question 12 oxen consume $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres of grass and its growth in 4 weeks; the 10 acres being 3 times $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres, it would require 3 times as many oxen to consume 10 acres and its growth in the same time, and 12 oxen multiplied by 3 are 36 oxen. To consume the same in 9 weeks would require only $\frac{4}{9}$ as many oxen, and 36 oxen multiplied by $\frac{4}{9}$ are 16 oxen.

"By the second condition 21 oxen consume 10 acres of grass and its growth in 9 weeks; and 21 oxen less 16 oxen are 5 oxen. Then it follows that 5 oxen in 9 weeks would consume the growth of 10 acres of grass in the remaining 5 weeks. To consume the growth of 10 acres in 9 weeks would require $\frac{9}{5}$ as many oxen, and 5 oxen multiplied by $\frac{9}{5}$ are 9 oxen. Then 21 oxen less 9 oxen are 12 oxen. Hence it is evident that 12 oxen in 9 weeks would consume the grass at first on the 10 acres, and that 9 oxen in 9 weeks would consume the growth of the 10 acres of grass during the 9 weeks.

"The 24 acres in the third condition being $\frac{24}{10}$ or $2\frac{2}{5}$ times 10 acres, it would require $2\frac{2}{5}$ times 12 oxen to consume the grass at first on the 24 acres in 9 weeks, and 12 oxen multiplied by $2\frac{2}{5}$ are $28\frac{4}{5}$ oxen. To consume the same in 18 weeks would require only $\frac{9}{18}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ as many oxen, and $28\frac{4}{5}$ divided by 2 are $14\frac{2}{5}$ oxen. And to consume the growth of the 24 acres of grass during the 18 weeks would require $2\frac{2}{5}$ times 9 oxen, and 9 oxen multiplied by $2\frac{2}{5}$ are $21\frac{3}{5}$ oxen.

"Lastly, $14\frac{2}{5}$ oxen plus $21\frac{3}{5}$ are 36 oxen, the number required."

Second Solution.—Let x = amount of grass that grows on each acre per week. Then from the first conditions $\frac{3\frac{1}{2} + 13\frac{1}{2}x}{4 \times 12}$ = amount eaten by one ox per week; and by the second conditions $\frac{10 + 90x}{21 \times 9}$ = amount eaten by one ox per week: hence, $\frac{3\frac{1}{2} + 13\frac{1}{2}x}{4 \times 12} = \frac{10 + 90x}{21 \times 9}$; whence $x = \frac{1}{12}$. By substitution we find that one ox eats $\frac{5}{4}$ A. per week. Since one acre gains $\frac{1}{12}$ in one week, 24A. will gain 2A., and in 18 weeks will gain 36A. $24 + 36 = 60$ A., the amount of grass to be consumed in 18 weeks. Since one ox consumes in one week $\frac{5}{4}$ A., in 18 weeks he will consume $\frac{5}{4} \times 18 = \frac{45}{2}$ A.; and it will take as many oxen to consume 60A. in 18 weeks as $\frac{5}{2}$ is contained times in 60, or 36 oxen.

PUPILLUS.

Third Solution.—By the first condition $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres with 4 weeks'

growth will keep 12 oxen 4 weeks. Hence 1 acre with 4 weeks' growth will keep $\frac{3}{10}$ of 12 oxen 4 weeks, and 4 times $\frac{3}{10}$ of 12 oxen or $14\frac{2}{5}$ oxen 1 week.

By the second condition 10 acres with 9 weeks' growth will keep $\frac{1}{10}$ of 21 oxen 9 weeks, and 9 times $\frac{1}{10}$ of 21 oxen, $18\frac{9}{10}$ oxen, 1 week.

Now as 1 acre with 9 weeks' growth will keep $18\frac{9}{10}$ oxen 1 week, while 1 acre with 4 weeks' growth will keep only $14\frac{2}{5}$ oxen 1 week, it follows that $18\frac{9}{10} - 14\frac{2}{5} = 4\frac{1}{2}$ oxen can be kept 1 week on 5 weeks' growth of 1 acre. Hence, 1 weeks' growth of 1 acre will keep $\frac{1}{5}$ of $4\frac{1}{2}$ oxen, or $\frac{9}{10}$ of an ox, 1 week; and, as the growth is uniform, the growth of each acre will supply $\frac{9}{10}$ of an ox for any length of time.

Since the growth of 1 acre will keep $\frac{9}{10}$ of an ox, the growth of 10 acres will keep $\frac{9}{10} \times 10 = 9$ oxen. Hence 9 of the 21 oxen in the second condition must have been kept on the growth and 12 on the grass originally on the land.

The problem may now be resolved into the following:

(1.) If the regular growth of 1 acre of grass will keep $\frac{9}{10}$ of an ox from time to time, how many oxen will the growth of 24 acres keep? Obviously 24 times $\frac{9}{10} = 21\frac{3}{5}$ oxen.

(2.) If the grass standing on 10 acres will keep 12 oxen 9 weeks, how many oxen will the grass standing on 24 acres keep 18 weeks? Obviously $\frac{24}{10}$ of $\frac{9}{18}$ of 12 oxen $= 14\frac{2}{5}$ oxen.

Now if the grass at first standing on the 24 acres will keep $14\frac{2}{5}$ oxen 18 weeks, and the growth will keep $21\frac{3}{5}$, both together will keep $14\frac{2}{5} + 21\frac{3}{5} = 36$ oxen.

Prob. III. Let the dimensions be x, y , and z . Then by the conditions of the question we have

$$(1) \ x + y + z = 9; \quad (2) \ xyz = 24; \quad (3) \ x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 29.$$

Subtracting (3) from the square of (1) and dividing, we have (4) $xy + xz + yz = 26$.

Let $t = x + y$, and $u = xy$; then equations (1), (2) and (4) become

$$(5) \ t + z = 9; \quad (6) \ uz = 24; \quad (7) \ u + tz = 26.$$

Substituting the value of t (5) in (7), we have (8) $u + 9z - z^2 = 26$.

Substituting the value of u (6) in (8), we have (9) $\frac{24}{z} + 9z - z^2 = 26$ or (9) $z^3 - 9z^2 + 26z = 24$. Let $z = v + 3$, and equation (9) becomes $v^3 - v = 0$; whence $v = 1$ and $z = 4$. And from (6) $u = 6 = xy$; from (1), $x + y = 5$ and $(x + y)^2 = 25$. Subtracting from this $4xy = 24$, we have $(x - y)^2 = 1$ and $x - y = 1$. Hence $x = 3$, and $y = 2$. The dimensions, then, are 2, 3, and 4.

J. W. O.

$$V. \quad \frac{49x^2}{4} + \frac{48}{x^2} - 49 = 9 + \frac{6}{x}. \quad \text{Clearing of fractions, } 49x^4 + 192 -$$

$196x^2=36x^2+24x$. Changing order of terms and adding 4, $49x^4-196x^2+196=36x^2+24x+4$. Extracting square root, $7x^2-14=6x+2$; whence $x=2$ or $-\frac{8}{7}$. F. F.


VI. $\frac{x^4}{2}+\frac{17x^3}{4}-17x=8$. Transposing, $\frac{x^4}{2}+\frac{17x^3}{4}=8+17x$. Completing the square, $\frac{x^4}{4}+\frac{17x^3}{8}+\frac{289x^2}{256}=4+\frac{17x}{2}+\frac{289x^2}{256}$. Extracting square root, $\frac{x^2}{2}+\frac{17x}{16}=2+\frac{17x}{16}$; whence $x=\pm 2$. F. F.

PROBLEMS.—XXII. Divide 2 miles 7 furlongs 39 rods 5 yards 2 feet 6 inches by 6, and verify the result. PUPILLUS.

XXIII. A started on a journey at the rate of 10 miles a day: when he had been gone 10 days B started after him. The first day B went 10 miles; the second, 15; the third, 20, etc. In how many days will B overtake A? J. W. O.

XXIV. Given, $x^3+2x\sqrt{-1}+\sqrt{-x}=x^2(2+\sqrt{-1})+x^{\frac{3}{2}}$, to find the value of x . F. F.

GEOMETRICAL THEOREM.—XXV. Let a tangent and two secants be drawn from a point without a circle, and from the point of tangency draw a line through the middle point of the chord of the outer secant to the circumference; then from the point in which it meets the circumference draw two lines to the points in which the inner secant cuts the circumference,—in other words, draw two chords to the extremities of the chord of the inner secant: then will the points where these chords intersect the chord of the outer secant be equally distant from the middle point of that chord. A demonstration of the above is required. F. F.

 The proposer of the above theorem will cause the *Teacher* for 1862 to be sent as a prize to the author of the best demonstration sent to the Mathematical Editor before the first of November next.

ORIGIN OF THE SIGN OF EQUALITY.—The sign of equality was introduced into Algebra by the first English author on the subject, Robert Record, in his 'Whetstone of Witte (a treatise on Algebra)', 1557. He gives his reasons as follows: "And to avoide the tedious repetition of these words: *is equalle to*: I will sette, as I doe often in worke use, a paire of parallels, or Ge mowe lines of one lengthe, thus: = because noe 2 thynges can be more equalle." For a long time afterward the French and German mathematicians employed the symbol ∞ , which was doubtless a rapid formation of the diphthong *æ*, the initial of the phrase *æquale est*.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

A GROUNDLESS FEAR.—School-Commissioner Batchelder, of Hancock, touches a point of some importance in his call for the meeting of the County Teachers' Association, when he says "The Association is not made a place in which to expose the ignorance or timidity of young or old teachers, but, on the contrary, to remove both." The modesty of some, the suspicion of some, and pride of more, lead them to keep away from such gatherings. At the first one that we ever attended, two teachers were present from the country, who refused to take any part in the proceedings or to join the association: at last we drew from one the reason that they thought we wanted to make sport of them! We have never heard of such a piece of misconduct at any institute or teachers' gathering. If those who suffer with modesty, or with that form of pride called bashfulness, would but attend, even as spectators, they would see that Mr. Batchelder speaks truly; and they would not again need the advice. Go in and take your share of the work, and be, if need be, even generous of your dignity.

THE NORMAL REGIMENT.—This is the 33d Illinois regiment: it is not composed in large measure of teachers and students, as was at first expected, but was made up of volunteers of every class of persons that chose to enter it. Among its officers are the following persons formerly or still connected with the Normal School: Col. C. E. Hovey; Major E. R. Roe; Captains L. H. Potter, Ira Moore, and M. I. Morgan; Lieuts. Julian E. Bryant, Burnham, and Gove, with other officers of lower grade: also Quartermaster Simeon Wright, and Surgeon Dr. Geo. P. Rex. At last advices the regiment was not quite full, but would soon be filled and was under orders to go into Missouri, at St. Louis, to join Frémont's army.

A BESIEGED SCHOOL-HOUSE.—The following, from the *Grayville Independent*, will suit very well many other places of similar experience. If teachers can only induce the boys to have an interest in guarding the school-house, it will be well and thoroughly done.

"Our citizens, who do not like to pay very heavy *taxes* these hard times, should go up and take a look at the school-house. Put in perfect repair just before the commencement of the last school, it now presents the appearance of having been used as a fort, which had undergone a siege and storm of batteries. We suppose it do n't look much worse than Sumter did after its bombardment; but then, it must be recollected, Sumter was built on purpose to stand it."

AN AFFLICTION of severe sickness and death in a family to which the Editor of the *Teacher* was attached by ties of closest friendship, took his time and strength, as well as wore upon his feelings and his power of thought, at the time devoted to preparing this number.

COLLEGE SUSPENSIONS AT THE SOUTH.—The New-Orleans *True Witness* says "Oakland College has been suspended; Lagrange College, Tennessee, the same. Also Stewart College, Clarksville, Tenn.; the University of Mississippi, at Oxford; Centenary College, at Jackson, Louisiana."

GOOD USE OF SUDS.—An intelligent lady whose little boy was beginning to swear, anxious to express to her child the horror of profanity, hit upon the novel plan of washing out his mouth with soap-suds whenever he swore. It was an effectual cure. The boy understood his mother's sense of the corruption of an oath, which with the taste of the suds produced the desired result. The practice, if universally adopted, would raise the price of soap.

Exch.

A QUEER REPORT.—The following is taken from the published report of the superintendent of public schools in a town where in 1860 1376 pupils attended the public schools, and where the cost of their support was \$5162.15. Might not an additional amount have been with propriety appropriated for the special instruction of the superintendent?

“The past year has been as successful as former years. B. F. G. does not fail to keep up the interest of the school, but rather increases it. He allows not himself to be trammelled by the formal routine of school-teaching; yet we think his variations are wise. The progress of the pupils is self-evident. The pupils are wide awake and not easily entrapped by questions. The grammar-class parsed the bills passed by last Congress. His reading had got beyond ability to spell, and the whole school was put into the spelling-book for a season. The paper formerly published by the scholars still lives and improves. All classes of Arithmetic studied Mental Arithmetic. This general Arithmetic was a success for the time devoted to it. He finds no difficulty in controlling his school if parents would not interfere with his government. Good government was maintained, though far from being constrained. A laugh is not pent up by sternness, but is easily controlled by the teacher when it has reached its proper bound. The unruly scholars paid him a visit, which his strong arm soon decided. The old school-rooms had been often repaired, but soon got to looking bad. The school now enjoys a good school-house: it is very pleasant and convenient, and a credit to the district. It ought, we think, to have stood between the church and the old school-house.

“And now, as we close for the year, it may not be amiss to remind you that the first on the list of your school-committee is not. When present among you he showed himself an able committee-man. His place he has left to his successor. The way he has gone we shall soon go.

“Respectfully submitted.

B. P——, Sup't.”

ILLINOIS INSTITUTION FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.—The Twelfth Term of this institution, supported by the State of Illinois, will begin on October 1st, 1861. All suitable applicants can be received. Application for admission should immediately be made, by letter, to the ‘Principal of the Institution for the Blind’, Jacksonville, Illinois.

JOSHUA RHODES, Principal.

ILLINOIS INSTITUTION FOR DEAF MUTES.—The ensuing term of this institution will commence on Wednesday, October 2d. As punctual arrival at the time of opening school as circumstances will possibly admit is specially enjoined. Applicants for admission should not be under ten years of age. Pupils from Illinois are admitted to all the privileges of the institution free of charge — being provided with board, washing, fuel, lights, tuition, books, and every thing necessary except clothing and traveling expenses. Each pupil should come provided with clothing sufficient to last one year, or with money to procure it, or with a certificate of the Judge of the County Court of the county in which he resides authorizing the Principal to purchase it for him. He should also have a trunk, with a good lock and key, and large enough to contain all his clothing, each article of which should be distinctly marked with his name.

PHILIP G. GILLET, Principal.

A MODEL EXCUSE.—A teacher in a public school lately received the following note: “Please excuse Thomas for being late, and charge the same to my account. — — —.” Exch.

INTERMITTENT GEOGRAPHY.—A little girl came into our office yesterday and inquired for an *Intermittent* Geography. We thought at first that a new teacher had been employed, and that he had been *intermitting* the class of books lately adopted in our schools. The meaning of ‘intermittent’ is ‘ceasing at intervals’; and certainly the use of our school-books is subject to the disease upon the employment of every new teacher. Every new teacher will ‘intermit’ the old books. The little miss used a very appropriate term, but she intended to inquire for ‘Intermediate’.

Carthage Republican.

N. Y. STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Our friend Mr. Shattuck attended the meeting of this body at Watertown, N. Y., last August, and favored us with the newspaper reports of the session as given in the local papers. He says that about 300 teachers and school-officers were present. Some of the discussions and the lectures were quite interesting; but he is not willing to admit that they have any better meetings of Association in New York than we do in Illinois. We shall next month notice some of the notable things of the session.

Who Bids?—We find the following in one of our newspaper exchanges printed at a place where we thought the people wanted passably-good schools. We were mistaken; such wages can never procure good teaching.

NOTICE TO SCHOOL-TEACHERS.—Notice is hereby given by the Directors of School-District No. 12, that there is wanted for the next six months, four Female and three Male teachers for the public Schools, salary of Females will be \$18 per month they finding room and fuel, Males \$25 per month room and fuel found. Parties desiring to teach will meet the Directors in person or otherwise on the afternoon of September 14th, at the County Clerk's office, at 2 o'clock p.m., by order of the board.

We should like to hear from those four *female* teachers how much they have left at the end of six months after paying board, room-rent, and cost of fuel: we suppose they will make their own fires and sweep their own rooms, of course. If they clear \$1.00 a week they will do well on such pay. In our own city the Bridgets and Pollys do better at housework; and probably it is so in the above district too. Shame on such school-officers as issued the above notice!

IVISON, PHINNEY & Co. continue to advertise in our pages, in spite of hard times and the contraction of trade: our readers will find this month a new advertisement of some of their excellent school-books, in the various series of which they find opportunity from time to time to make improvements. The Spencerian Copy-Books and Bryant & Stratton's Book-keeping are specially presented to the notice of the public at this time.

HARPER & BROTHERS call attention, in an advertisement this month, to certain important points in which they claim for Willson's Readers superiority over other series in common use.

WEBSTER'S PICTORIAL UNABRIDGED appears in a short advertisement, citing illustrations of its peculiar adaptation to the wants of all classes in these times when military terms are so much in vogue.

BROOKLYN (N.Y.) REPORTS.—We have lately been favored with a copy of Mr. Bulkley's Annual Report for 1861.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

BLOOMINGTON.—Mr. C. P. Merriman, School Commissioner of McLean county, a fine scholar and a good man, has been appointed Superintendent of Schools in Bloomington. The low state of public education there promises him much labor for the next year, with abundant room for the use of all his powers.

DOUGLAS COUNTY.—The late School Commissioner, Mr. Irwin, is off to the war. Mr. I. J. Halsted is appointed his successor, and is a candidate for the office this fall. Mr. Halsted requires every candidate for a teacher's certificate to show interest enough in the occupation of teaching to be a subscriber to an educational journal; and to lady teachers makes a reduction of fee to those who subscribe for the *Teacher*. We wish all Commissioners saw the importance of this matter as our friend Halsted does. We do not say that all ought to take our monthly; but all should take some one.

NEW BOSTON.—Mr. M. V. B. Shattuck, lately in the Alton Public Schools, takes charge of the New-Boston (Mercer Co.) High School. He is to be assisted by Mrs.

Shattuck and by Miss Huntington, a graduate of the New-York State Normal School. The New-Bostonians have a new building with Boston furniture, and intend to have a first-class school. Mr. Shattuck will be his part towards it.

MONMOUTH.—The schools in this city are organized with Mr. James Scott, Mrs. L. M. Tucker, and Mr. Samuel A. Hummer as principal teachers. The Board adopted the rules in *Illinois's School Reporter* for the government of pupils, and took some measures for the improvement of their primary departments.

NORMAL.—Mr. Dwyer declined the position of superintendent of Normal, and Perkins Bass, Esq., formerly a teacher in Chicago, subsequently a former member of the Board of Education in that city and also a member of the State Board of Education, has been appointed to fill the vacancy. We have not sufficient acquaintance with Mr. Bass to speak of him from our own knowledge, but have noticed that those who know him well have every reason to believe in his bearing. We hope that Normal will thrive under his administration, and that it will prove a long one.

PEDAGOGICAL JOURNAL.—Editor of *Teacher*.—According to instructions of the Illinois Teachers' Institute, I herewith send you a copy of the paper which passed at its late session, held at this place. The session was one of interest, and the teachers in attendance seemed to enjoy themselves immensely. We think that every teacher in the country could be induced to attend the institute for several weeks, so that where a teacher can gain the information requisite for the rational discharge of his duties in the same length of time that he can at a well-conducted teachers' institute.

RESOLUTIONS AND RESOLUTIONS.

Resolved—That the great and growing interest of the common schools of our country demands uniformity and improvement in the manner of imparting instruction throughout the country, and that we believe these objects can be attained better by teachers' associations than in any other way; therefore,

Resolved—1. That the Teachers' Institute of this country should be incorporated with public generally, and be assisted in its support by the government, in order that the expenses of teachers may be lightened, and that it should be made the imperative duty of every teacher holding a certificate of qualification from our State Commissioner to attend its sessions.

2. That we recommend the formation of teachers' associations in each township, to hold meetings as often at least as once a month.

The 1st, 2nd and 3rd resolutions are similar to our interests; I therefore omit them.

3. That the Secretary be instructed to transmit the *Illinois Teacher*, and also send papers to the country, with a copy of these resolutions, with a request that they be published.

JOHN S. RANDOLPH, Secretary.

Elmhurst, September 1, 1861.

SPRINGFIELD.—Our friend J. M. McCall says: "After much labor we have succeeded in getting the schools of Spring to assume something of a graded school shape—viz., that of a graded school—so that a little time has passed since the plan and importance sufficient to obtain a name and place in the Educational Journals of the State.

WATKINSVILLE.—The Board of Education of this city, which has no independent control of the schools, asked permission of the City Council to employ teachers at various rates, thus: One male teacher, \$300 a year; one adv. \$100; one adv. \$250; six other ladies, \$15, or \$4.50 a week. The Council refused the request, but the male teachers' salary at \$300, and ordered that to female teachers should receive more than \$4.50 a week. The City Superintendent and Board of Education thereupon resigned in a body. The Superintendent, Mr. Geo. L. Lane, was reappointed, and the aldermen made up a board of education out of their own number. The new board, unless they prove an exception to such boards as are usually met, will probably be very economical of their attention to the schools, and of the school-fund, and if *non est* *enimvero* too, the latter costs more than a boot article.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

ANSWERS.—*Query* 38 (p. 155). "Why do woollens shrink when washed?"

Answer. The filaments, or fine hairs, of which wool consists, are found, upon examination with a microscope, to be rough, jagged. Hence they may become matted or felted together. This felting is produced in washing, partly by the rubbing processes, and partly by the alternate expansions and contractions resulting from the use of hot and cold water; and perhaps partly because when the water is removed from the interstices of the filaments atmospheric pressure closes them together, and when interlocked and matted they can not be separated without tearing.

V.

Query 43 (p. 232). "In what mode is the verb *be* in the following extract: 'Blessed be thy advice and blessed be thou'?"

Answer. There are but five modes of verbs, according to our popular grammarians: of these we can at once set aside from the inquiry the potential, subjunctive and infinitive, as manifestly out of the question: we have left the indicative and the imperative. As the purpose of the speaker was not to assert an act of his judgment, but rather to express his will or wish, we must call the verb imperative. Even if we suppose an ellipsis of *may* the result must be the same; for the distinctive characteristic of the imperative is that it expresses the will or wish of the speaker in a direct form, and not through the medium of an assertion of that will.

I suggest to grammarians the question whether we should not gain something of clearness by dropping the use of the term *mode* with respect to verbs and applying it to sentences. Thus would I say of *sentences* that they have five modes: the indicative, the hypothetical, the interrogative, the exclamatory, and the imperative. With a single exception (the verb *be*), the form of any verb is not varied for use in sentences of the several modes which I call indicative, hypothetical, interrogative, and exclamatory; and the only modal distinction of form is that of the verb in the imperative sentence. If it remains desirable to use the term *mode* with respect to verbs, we might always assign to a verb the mode of the sentence in which it occurs. The purpose of the sentence would then determine the mode of the verb. We decide the verb *be* in the query to be imperative because the sentence is imperative.

WESTMAN.

Query 44 (p. 232). "What is *rolling* in the line 'And trunks of trees came rolling down'?"

Answer. 1st. It is a participle, because it is derived from the verb *roll* and denotes an act of the trees. 2d. It is an adjective, because it describes *trees* by assuming an attribute of them. 3d. It is an adverb, because it describes *how* the trees *came*, or the manner of their coming; they came rolling. Each of these statements is true, and the reason assigned for each is valid: it follows that *rolling* is participle, adjective, and adverb, all at once. If the grammarians have not yet taught their pupils that a word may be three 'parts of speech' at once, so much the worse for the poor pupils, and for the still poorer grammarians, too.

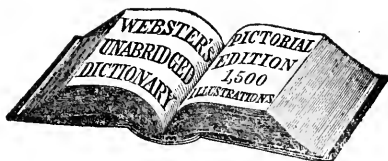
WESTMAN.

NEW QUERY.—49. "Virtue held back his arm; but a milder form, a younger sister of *Virtue's*, . . . smiled upon him," etc.—*Query* 35 (p. 115). "It is true that Mr. Gamble opposed the government in the Parliament of 1854-7, . . . and it was no business of *Mr. Brown* to advocate his election," etc.—*Toronto Globe*. Are both these forms authorized? If so, which is to be preferred?

J. W. O.

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ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

OCTOBER, 1861.

NUMBER 10.

DR. SAMUEL G. HOWE.

THE first Institution for the Blind ever established on this continent, or, indeed, in this Western Hemisphere, was the New-England Asylum, in Boston, Mass., in 1829. This now, for twenty-seven years, has been under the care of that distinguished man, Dr. Samuel G. Howe, even then known as the Philhellene, or Lover of Greece; but now by the broader title of Philanthropist, or Lover of Mankind. Under the superintendence of Dr. Howe, this institution has made more improvements in the methods and instruments of teaching the blind than all the other schools in the world added together; and its efforts have been attended with a proportionate success.

Dr. Howe has also introduced into this country, of late years, the still more-difficult instruction of idiots. The success of this last and most-astounding work of benevolence proves incontestably that in every human being exist the germs of faculties, and that the divine spirit of Christian love will find the means of discovering and fertilizing them, even when they have been so covered up by the sin of disobedience to God's laws that the very semblance of humanity is lost. Here, indeed, is the literal fulfillment of Scripture. The sins of the fathers are visited upon the third and the fourth generation. But the blessed law of recuperative force is visible even here.

As Dr. Howe now does and always will occupy a conspicuous place in the annals of benevolence, it will not be inappropriate to give a brief sketch of his life.

There is a large number of men who, on account of his differences from them in religious views, thrust him out of the pale of Christianity. Passing by his belief, let us see if, in his life, he has not imitated the Savior as much as they. I have known him long. Perhaps few

have known him as intimately. We were in college together, and for twenty years I was officially associated with him in the administration of that institution with which his name is now imperishably connected. For a great deal of that time there was scarcely a day in which a personal interview did not give me some new proof of his wisdom and goodness.

At the time when the Greek war of independence broke out Dr. Howe was a student of medicine in Boston. Even then his youthful heart was an altar already loaded with incense. The sight of a brave people struggling for liberty kindled that incense into a flame—a flame which has burned uninterruptedly, for Greece, for Poland, for Hungary, for Italy, and for those in this country who are under direr oppression than Greek, or Pole, or Hungarian, or Italian. He flew to Greece, and for six years—a part of the time as a surgeon in the army or on board the fleet; a part of the time as a volunteer, like Lafayette and Kosciusko in our Revolutionary war—he devoted himself to the liberation of that people. He adhered to their cause until he left them free. Then he taught them something of the arts of peace. The first cart made in Greece was made under his superintendence. The old ancestors of that people had made chariots for battle, but not carts for agriculture; and their descendants inherit a sufficient degree of the old organization to shape a graceful boat with a jack-knife, while so little were the useful arts cultivated that they needed instruction in fabricating the most-common utensils of life. The Egyptians had overrun the Peloponnesus, ravaging and destroying all fruit and harvest; and the people were reduced almost to starvation. At that critical moment Dr. Howe returned to this country; preached a crusade through all New England and New York; raised some sixty thousand dollars in money, and an immense quantity of clothing, with which he relieved the mortal necessities of the Greeks, and sustained them until the final hour of triumph. Twenty years after, when he rode alone into Greece on horseback one day, an accidental traveling companion was astonished to see him recognized by a peasant-woman, who spread the glad intelligence; and he was immediately surrounded, and borne into the neighboring city, *volens volens*, on the shoulders of the people. Such joy was manifested at the sight of him who had founded a village on that spot in the days of stormy trial, that his accidental companion was moved to tears at the spectacle of enthusiasm, even before he knew the details of the history. At that point of time the Greeks were just again triumphant over oppression; and his friends ruled the ascendant, and were glad to do him honor. They also sent a Greek newspaper to his friend Charles Sumner, in which

the incident was related, or probably we should never have had the pleasure of learning it; for Dr. Howe is never the hero of his own story.

To return to his early history. At the time of his return from his Grecian expedition to Boston Dr. John D. Fisher, who had just completed his medical studies in Paris, came home to Boston also, with his great heart filled, brimming, with the project of establishing an Institution for the Blind, like that of the Abbé Haüy, with which he had become familiar in Paris.

In a city so renowned for its charities as Boston the bricks and mortar for such an establishment could easily be obtained; but where could one find the great, organizing, executive mind to be put at its head, and to be its sensorium?

The most-sagacious turned to Dr. Howe as the man above all men for the place; and he was appointed. He accepted, and immediately embarked for Europe to visit the institutions at Paris and elsewhere.

It was while in Paris, on this mission, that his chivalrous spirit prompted him to accept a trust which well-nigh proved fatal, not only to the enterprise in which he was embarked, but to his life. This visit to Paris was during the Polish insurrection of 1830-31. A thrill of enthusiasm in behalf of the Poles, as a few years before in behalf of the Greeks, ran through this country; and large contributions of money and clothing were made in their behalf. These donations were forwarded to Gen. Lafayette in Paris, to be remitted by him to their suffering objects. Gen. Lafayette dispatched two agents (a French and a German officer) with the succors. One of them was taken prisoner by the enemy; the other was balked in his purpose, and returned. Who now had the bravery and the skill to carry the needed relief to the perishing army?

It should be stated here that a large, perhaps the largest, body of the Polish insurgents had just been driven across their frontiers into Prussia. Prussia stipulated that, if they would surrender their arms and dismiss their officers, she would afford them a refuge; but having, for some reasons of state, changed her policy, and become more friendly to Russia, she surrounded the Poles with a cordon of soldiers, and attempted, by starvation on her side of the line, to drive them into the jaws of the Russian bear on the other side. It was at this perilous juncture, when they were guarded by Prussian soldiers on one side and watched by Russian victors on the other, and perishing from want within themselves, that Dr. Howe undertook to carry the needed assistance to this hunted band of patriots. He was then on the point of starting for Berlin to visit the Blind Institution established there

by the Abbé Haüy a quarter of a century before, and he accepted this perilous commission as an episode. As soon as wheels could carry him, he stood within the Polish cantonments—ground consecrated by the presence of patriots, desecrated by the rule of tyrants. The Poles had been quartered among the peasants, and they were scattered over a space a dozen miles in extent. By the terms of capitulation, their officers had been removed. One officer, however, having determined to abide the fortunes of his companions, remained, and, the more securely to cover his concealment, feigned illness, and from his sick-quarters, unknown except by a few trusted ones, all necessary orders were issued. Over this extended space, and among this large number, Dr. Howe began, personally, the distribution of his alms, by traveling from hut to hut, scattering gladness wherever he went. Soon he came to a peasant's rude hut, where he was told there lay, in an upper loft, a dying Pole. He ascended to the apartment, which bore all the evidences of a sick man's chamber—the attendants, the silence, the medical paraphernalia; and, by the dim light from a darkened window, the form of a man was seen prostrate upon a pallet of straw. Dr. Howe explained his errand; assured him that he came as a friend to help, and not as an enemy to betray. Convinced of this, the feigning sick man sprang upon his feet, and stood before him, a tall, gigantic grenadier, ready, as chance might offer, for friendship or for battle—ready for any thing but to live a slave. It was their commander.

The supplies came at a moment when the Polish army was at the point of despair. They were promptly delivered, and joyfully received; and Dr. Howe, having fed the hungry and clothed the naked, started immediately for Berlin to learn how to give eyes to the blind.

Immediately after arriving at Berlin, he accidentally met an American citizen, with whom he exchanged cards, giving, most fortunately, the name of the hotel where he lodged. The next morning that citizen called at the hotel and inquired for Dr. Howe, but was told that no such person was or had been there. Appearances, however, excited suspicion; and, by adroit and persevering inquiries, this gentleman found that a body of the police had visited the house during the night: but Dr. Howe, for six weeks, was no where to be found by any friendly inquirer—no where to be seen by any friendly eye. The facts were that no sooner had Dr. Howe distributed his succors among the Poles than they were changed as from dead men to live ones. A new soul had been created within them, and all indications pointed to him as to the creator. Now let us see what has been the fortune of the moral hero.

In Prussia every traveler must go from place to place by public conveyance. All public stages are there truly public ones; for they are owned and driven by the government. However urgent one's business may be, whatever emergency may arise, no private man, with private horses or private carriage, is allowed to help one on one's way. The government, for police purposes, transacts all this business. They register the name of every passenger; note where they take him up, and where they set him down; so that they can tell the outgoing and incoming of every traveler who passes through the kingdom, or moves from place to place in it. Hence the bloodhounds easily tracked Dr. Howe from the camp of the Poles to his hotel in Berlin; and at midnight, on the first night of his arrival in the city, they knocked at his chamber-door. On opening it he saw three men. They were clad in citizens' dress, and at first only asked him the news from the camp, and requested his attendance before some civil commissioners. On his declining to go, he was told he must go; and, on his demanding by what authority, the captain of the band unbuttoned and laid open his citizen's coat, and showed the uniform and badge that had all the thunders of the government at its back. He parleyed; and finally, by promising to attend to them in the morning, he gained a respite for a few hours during the residue of the night. Availing himself of this critical period, he selected what valueless and insignificant papers he had, which he tore into shreds, shuffled, and threw into a basin of water; but all his valuable ones, and such as might connect him with the transaction, he hid in the hollow of a bust of the King of Prussia, which is almost universally found in all public rooms and places of resort throughout the realm.

With early dawn reappeared the police, who had watched all night at his door, to conduct him, as they had intimated, to some tribunal or company anxious to hear the news.

Whoever has been in Berlin will remember a vast stone building in one of the most conspicuous streets, nearly in the heart of the city, obtruding its silent horrors upon the sight, and striking with fiercer horrors all the recollections and associations of men. It is the Government Prison, the Bastile of Prussia. There, in a stone room eight feet by six, without fresh air, without light, Dr. Howe was thrust, and there began a night of darkness, equally impervious to the light of day and the light of hope, which lasted six weeks. Of all men and their confederates in the under-world, none but the princes of police and the prince of darkness knew where he was. No communication by letter or speech was allowed—none save that unseen communication with the great Father of us all, which all good men have, and of which no earthly or infernal foe can rob them.

At the end of two days he was taken before a kind of commission (somewhat, perhaps, like a certain kind of commission in this country; only in that mere despotism, I believe, the base hirelings did not have double the fee for convicting which they did for acquitting, as is the case in this land of boasted freedom). That tribunal conducted his examination on some atomic or infinitesimal theory; for they read to him not less than three hundred written questions, beginning with the names of his father and mother, and evincing the most-extraordinary interest in every event that had happened from the day of his birth, and taking down all his answers in writing. At the end of two days more he was taken before the same officers again; and the three hundred and more questions were all put to him again, and again were all his answers taken down in writing. At the close of his second examination he was remanded to his dungeon, too small to welcome friend or comforter, but large enough to hold all the spectres of horror or despair that can ever visit a good man's heart. There, in utter solitude, within stone walls, hard as though each granule in their structure were a tyrant's heart, as though they had been constructed of tyrants' hearts as coral insects build coral reefs, he remained six weeks, having no expectation of any other home or tomb but that; unless, indeed, he might be surrendered to Russia, and doomed to Siberian mines.

One circumstance which transpired marks the untiring industry of the Prussian police. At his first examination, he saw that the whole mass of papers which he had torn up and thrown into the water had been taken out, dried, and readjusted, part to part, as one readjusts the dislocated pieces of a Chinese puzzle; but they did not discover the important papers in the old king's head, not being Yankees.

At his arrival in Berlin from the Polish camp, as I before mentioned, he met an American gentleman, who made a call of civility upon him at his hotel the next morning. The denial that any such person had been there, and the fact that the police had visited the house during the night, aroused suspicions of foul play. This gentleman, therefore, immediately wrote to Mr. Rives, then American minister at Paris, communicating his apprehensions. Mr. Rives made inquiry of the Prussian Government, and was officially informed that no American had been there—only a Frenchman, a confederate of the Poles, who pretended to be an American. But he persisted; and finally, after six weeks of negotiation, and to avoid a threatened collision with the United States, the Prussian Government withdrew its retractile fangs from the flesh of its victim. At night his prison-door was opened. He was put into a carriage, and supposed he was doomed to Siberia;

but the rising sun reassured him, for he rode in an opposite direction. He was driven six hundred miles without stopping, and tossed across the Prussian frontier, with an admonition never to set foot within it again. His trunk and effects were there all restored to him, except forty-two dollars retained for prison charges, after the manner of South Carolina when she imprisons Northern colored seamen.

When I went to Europe with Dr. Howe, in 1843, his name was found still standing on the proscribed list in all the Prussian frontiers, and he was still forbidden to enter the Kingdom.

The King of Prussia has since relented; for he sent Dr. Howe a gold medal for his wonderful achievement in educating Laura Bridgman—the medal being of a class bestowed only upon those who have performed the most-distinguished philanthropic services. It is a curious fact that this medal was of precisely the value of the prison-fees above mentioned!

I presume you have all heard something of Laura Bridgman. She was a child—blind, deaf, dumb, and almost utterly destitute of the senses of taste and smell. Here was this glorious world—nature, beauty, love, humanity, without: there, within, brooded and slept and moaned an immortal soul. What Northwest passage, or any other passage, shall be opened to that hidden, spiritual continent, more-valuable than any new-discovered continent upon the earth, or any new-discovered star in the heavens? Who shall enter and gather the fruits of this new garden of the Hesperides? What angel shall convey a spark to kindle the incense already laid upon that lovely, but lonely, sequestered altar?

There was but one man who knew how to open that sarcophagus, and bring to life the immortal spirit within it; and that man was Dr. Howe.

With what deep emotions do we look back to the moments when great events were preparing for their birth!—to Christopher Columbus, wooing from nature the secret of another continent; to Sir Isaac Newton, recognizing the invisible bond of attraction that holds the universe in its beautiful order; or to Dr. Howe, with Laura Bridgman upon his knee, opening an avenue to her soul, and bringing out the captive into the light of day, and the more-precious light of knowledge—into the truths that pertain to time and to eternity. Then she was a blank—voiceless, thoughtless, almost inaccessible. Now she is learned, sensible, beautiful, and far more-intelligent than the average of young ladies who have had more than her advantages without suffering any of her privations.

Now, I suppose Dr. Howe has given an equivalent for sight to more

persons, ten to one, than all the apostles put together. How nobly has he imitated the miracles!

Although, as Tacitus said of Seneca, 'he would make a fit tutor for a prince', yet, for more than a quarter of a century, he has spent his noble and beneficent life among the blind. His last Annual Report was numbered the twenty-fifth.

Dr. Howe is now in his fifty-fifth year. Naturally of a fibrous, most-enduring and resilient temperament, his health was broken down by exposures while in the army of Greece. He is the best specimen extant of all that was noble and valiant in the old chevalier; and in their day he would have been as terrible and as generous a warrior as Godfrey or Amadis de Gaul. He is a man capable of all moods of mind, from the stormiest to the gentlest; with a voice that could shout on a charge of cavalry, or lull a sick infant to sleep. When that ocean of feeling he carries in his breast is calm, the halcyon bird might there build her nest and brood her young; but when the tempest of a holy indignation rouses it, navies could not survive its fury.

Though devoting himself primarily and mainly to his speciality of benevolence, yet, when that work is done, he engages in other philanthropies. To whom is education indebted more than to him? He and Charles Sumner did more than all other men to correct public sentiment on the subject of solitary confinement in prisons; and the same hand that carried succors to the Greeks in 1826, and to the Poles in 1841, carried them to Kansas also last year.

When any benevolent enterprise is undertaken in Massachusetts his leadership or counsel is always invoked; and if he be absent in any critical juncture or desperate emergency, men cry out, as the host of Clan-Alpine at the battle of Beal an Duinè,

"One blast upon his bugle-horn
Were worth a thousand men!"

One of the most-striking traits in my hero's character is its simplicity; not merely an absence of pretension, but a negation of it. Unlike many truly great men, he has no particle of self-show or self-demonstration; and a stranger might ride with him a thousand miles without being informed that he had ever been any where that every body else had not been, or seen any body that every body else had not seen. Like an unpolished diamond, the surface is the only unbrilliant part of him; though dim without, all luminous within. When he writes or when he fights, the beholder is not dazzled by the sheen of the battle-ax, but the antagonist dies under the weight of the metal or by the precision of the blow. Like the Arab's sword which had shivered every sword it had ever struck,

“Ornament it carried none,
Save the notches on the blade.”

[The foregoing sketch of the life and services of Dr. Samuel G. Howe is by the late Horace Mann. It is contained in one of his sermons preached at Antioch, Ohio, to the students of Antioch College. We obtain it from the *Monthly Journal* of the Amer. Unit. Assoc. for August, 1861.]

S T R A I G H T L I N E S .

MISS LESLIE informed her pupils that she was about to form a class for the study of drawing. All who wished to join it were to hand in their names the next day.

Among those who joined it were Hattie May and Agnes Leighton. Both ranked high in their classes, and both shared the good opinion of their teacher; but Miss Leslie, upon looking over the class, mentally divided them into two portions, of which Hattie and Agnes were the type scholars.

The class met in the school-room every afternoon at four o'clock, after the other pupils were dismissed. The girls thought it very pleasant to be in the quiet room with their teacher on those bright summer afternoons. Through the open windows the fragrance of the flowers came softly on the cool breezes, and now and then a little bird twittered and caroled in the great elm-tree before the door. Miss Leslie gave every pupil four lead-pencils of different numbers, a small drawing-book, a piece of india-rubber, and a card upon which was the first lesson.

What do you suppose the first lesson was? It was simply how to draw straight lines.

“Is this all, Miss Leslie?” said Hattie May, in a disappointed tone. “This is easy, I’m sure.”

“Not so easy as you imagine, Hattie.” said Miss Leslie. “It may take several lessons for you to learn this. Do not draw rashly, and be careful about using your india-rubber.”

After giving each pupil a few simple directions, Miss Leslie went to her desk and began to write a letter. She was not so much occupied, however, but that she saw how her class was engaged.

Hattie May made several unsuccessful attempts to imitate the line

in the copy. She erased them with the rubber, and tried again. Some how the same curve would get into the line. Now it was to the right, now to the left, but every time a curve. It must be the pencil.

"Miss Leslie," said Hattie, "may I come to you?"

"Yes, Hattie. What is the matter?"

"I think my pencil is not sharp enough. I *ca'n't* get these lines like yours."

"The fault is not in the pencil, my dear: your hand is not steady enough. Try again."

Hattie went back and tried again. Just then a beautiful golden-winged butterfly alighted on the window-sill.

"Oh!" thought Hattie, "I want to draw birds, and butterflies, and flowers; and by-and-by, perhaps, make a portrait of dear little baby Charlie, with all his bright curls lying upon each other, like spots of sunshine. I wish Miss Leslie would give us pretty things to draw in stead of these tiresome lines and triangles, etc., which I suppose will be the order of the day." "Emma, how do you like it?" she whispered to her neighbor on the right.

"I think those lines are horrid," said Emma, pushing her book toward Hattie.

On the left of Hattie sat Agnes Leighton. She was busily working while Hattie was looking out of the window. She had made a number of attempts, and at last a successful one. One, two, three lines were as straight as the one upon the card. Now she commenced making them of different lengths, each one a little longer than the last. Hattie, looking over her classmate's shoulder, could not restrain an exclamation of surprise.

Miss Leslie came to examine the performance. "Very well done, Agnes!" said she. "You may advance a step to-morrow; but Hattie must take the same card for her next lesson."

"Why, Miss Leslie," said Hattie, "I did not think drawing was like this. Won't you give us something interesting?—a farm-house with a vine running up against the windows and chickens before the door, or a mountain, or rocks, or ——"

"Not so fast, Hattie," said Miss Leslie. "One step at a time. I might, it is true, give you all these; but, though you might make a rude imitation of them, it would not be drawing. Fineness and rapidity of touch, grace of outline and accuracy, all come by practice. Be sure of every inch of ground as you proceed. Dreaming is not drawing. You might look all day at a pretty landscape, but if you had not first learned to make a straight line you would try in vain to draw it."

"Straight lines are very important, are they not, Miss Leslie?" said Agnes Leighton, looking up with a smile.

"In more ways than one," said her teacher. "There is a straight line of truth, and another of perseverance, and another of kindness, in which young feet must learn to walk; and you know that the Bible says 'Straight is the way that leadeth unto life': so don't despise straight lines, Hattie."

The drawing-class met every day that term. At the end of that time Hattie had drawn her favorite farm-house, with the vine and lattice. But Agnes, who worked steadily and spent no time in dreaming, had taken a little view of the school-house, with the great elm-tree and the hill-side; and her drawing obtained the prize.

Banner of the Covenant.

PUNCTUATION.—NUMBER III.

At the close of my last article, I said that the oft-given directions to keep up the voice at a comma in reading, and to let it fall at a period, are absurd; and that the voice may fall at a comma, and rise at a period. Some readers may not at once think of an example: I will give some fragments of a dialogue in Sanders's Young Ladies' Reader.

"Are you going to call upon Mrs. Clayton and her daughters, Mrs. Marygold?" asked a neighbor, alluding to a family that had just moved into Sycamore Row."

Here the sentence closes with a rising inflection, although it is properly closed with a period. The rule of reading in such a case is thus given by Mandeville: "When a circumstance succeeds a simple definite interrogative sentence, and is dependent on it, both are delivered with the same rising slide; or rather, the slide of the interrogation is continued to the end of the circumstance." (Mandeville, *Elements of Reading and Oratory*, p. 130.) Dr. Mandeville gives examples similar to the one which I have quoted; I place them in a foot-note.* In each the inflection at the end of the sentence is a rising one, while the proper point there is a period. If any who read this have been in the habit of telling pupils that they must always let the voice fall at a period, let them withdraw the direction hereafter.

* 1. Am I my brother's keeper? said the unhappy man. 2. Have you read the Key to the Romans? said Dr. Taylor, of Norwich, to Mr. Newton. 3. Do you dread death in my company? he cried to the anxious sailors, when the ice on the coast of Holland had almost crushed the boat that was bearing him to the shore.

“ ‘But what do you mean by *common people*, Mrs. Marygold?’

“ ‘Why, I *mean* common people.’ ”

In these sentences the voice goes down at the commas after the words *people* and *why*: of the latter word in such cases Mandeville says that it should be delivered “with the shortest possible falling slide: merely, if I may so speak, with a downward intimation.” For other examples the reader may consult the work cited, p. 134, or may look into any animated dialogue which is really natural and dramatic.

The colon and semicolon generally follow complete propositions; and as at the close of propositions the voice generally falls, a falling inflection is generally given where the semicolon or colon would be put by a punctuist. But these points do not denote or require the falling inflection; and I might bring instances where the voice rises at a colon or a semicolon, as I have brought those where it rises at a period.

I give these examples and press these points upon the reader's attention, because it is necessary in studying punctuation to *dissociate punctuation and delivery*: the punctuist must understand that *he has nothing whatever to do with delivery*, except when he has occasion to indicate it by the use of the dash: in all other cases he must point by reference to the grammatical structure. So the reader must not suppose that the points, excepting in some cases the dash, indicate to him the delivery: they only indicate *structure*, from which, with other indications, he ascertains the *meaning*, which governs *delivery*.

I design to give a few *general* rules of punctuation which may be easily carried in mind and serve as a key to the practice of this art in most compositions. The practical application of all principles and rules of punctuation depends upon the punctuist's appreciation of the meaning of the sentence that he is pointing, and thus of its structure; and as different persons who are good readers may apprehend and interpret the same sentence differently, and thus read it differently, so good punctuists may apprehend the structure of any given sentence in different ways, and may point it differently; and each may have good reasons for his pointing. There is still another reason for differences in pointing, which is this: the different possible uses for points are more numerous than the points that we have: consequently, any one of our four points may be used for purposes which are not its principal purpose. Thus at the present time there is a custom among writers to avoid the long and complicated sentential structures that were formerly used: consequently the period is oftener used to separate sentences which bear a rather close relation to each other, and the second of which may begin with a conjunction or relative word. I heard a teacher say that he had thought that no sentence ending with a pe-

riod could be followed by a sentence beginning with *and* or *but* ; but he found frequent instances of violation of his rule, and could not himself always be satisfied to use it. The difficulty that he experienced arose from the want of a sufficient number of points subordinate to the period.

THE PERIOD.—The period is a point less likely to be misused than any other, as the applications of the principles governing its use are easier and simpler. I like best as a statement of the rule for the period that of Dr. Mandeville, viz :

“THE PERIOD is properly placed at the end of a complete and independent enunciation of thought.” (Work cited, p. 45.)

The enunciation of thought is *complete* when the writer has joined to the subject and predicate of the sentence all the modifications and limitations that are necessary in his view ; and it is *independent* when, in addition, no further coördinate statement need be closely joined to give it logical modification, or to have the logical or grammatical relation of such coördinate statement sufficiently indicated. The words *and*, *but*, *yet*, *still*, *hence*, *therefore*, and similar words, as well as pronouns and conjunctive adverbs, may be used in a following sentence to indicate an alliance with a preceding sentence, or a general connexion with it, while they do not denote such close relation that the sentences in which they occur may not be separated from preceding ones by periods. Hence, Brown gives as his Rule II for the use of the period the following : “The period is often employed between two sentences which have a general connexion expressed by a personal pronoun, a conjunction, or a conjunctive adverb : as, ‘The selfish man languishes in his narrow circle of pleasures. *They* are confined to what affects his own interests. *He* is obliged to repeat the same gratifications, till they become insipid. *But* the man of virtuous sensibility moves in a wider circle of felicity.’—*Blair*.” In this example, despite the connective effect of *but*, no other point than the period could be used.

Dr. Mandeville gives the following example of improper use of the period : “Jurists may be permitted with comparative safety to pile tome upon tome of interminable disquisition upon the motives, reasons and causes of unjust war. Metaphysicians may be suffered with impunity to spin the thread of their speculations until it is attenuated to a cobweb ; but for a body created for the government of a great nation, and for the adjustment and protection of its diversified interests, it is worse than folly to speculate upon the causes of war, until the great question shall be presented for immediate action.” In this example

the period is wrongly used after *war*, because the propositions beginning with *jurists* and with *metaphysicians* bear an equal and the same relation to the proposition beginning with *but*; while the insertion of the period cuts off the relation of the first proposition.

A curious misuse of the period occurs in the first Exercise in Sanders's High-School Reader, which is an ill-written and ill-pointed extract, miserably divided into paragraphs. "The phrenologists are right in putting the organ of self-love in the back of the head. It being there that a vain man carries his light: the consequence is that every object he approaches becomes obscure by his own shadow." After *head* there should be a comma.

A point identical in form with the period is used to indicate contractions and abbreviations, as in Mr., Mrs., LL.D., etc. It would be well if some other name were given the point when used for such a purpose, since its use is, in such cases, quite distinct from that of the period proper.

SCRIBA.

METHODS OF TEACHING.

It is a common remark that 'Success in any enterprise depends mainly upon the *means* employed to produce the *end*'. This is as applicable to teaching children Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography, as to other pursuits.

It will not be denied that thousands of persons have spent years in studying the 'Art of Speaking and Writing the English Language' who are still unable to do it with any tolerable degree of accuracy. The manner in which the language was studied was not adapted to produce the desired result. They labored earnestly, faithfully, and long; but most of that labor was lost, because the *means* employed were not adapted to produce the *end*.

How does a father teach his son the art of cultivating the soil? Does he spend years in hearing him recite sentences about oxen, plows, chains, shovels, hoes, plowing planting, harvesting, and place him in a condition in which he can not practice handling the implements of husbandry—in which he can never plow, plant, or harvest, except a little by stealth, and that little without object or aim, except to gratify his curiosity for the passing moment?

How does the mother teach her daughter to knit or sew? By spelling cloth, needles, and yarn? By reciting sentences which describe

the manner of knitting or sewing? Surely, no father, no mother, is so destitute of common sense as to require children to pursue either of the above-mentioned courses. The son who is learning to cultivate the soil *cultivates the soil*. He learns his art only by *practice, by doing the very thing which he would learn*. The daughter who wishes to become expert with the needle *uses the needle*.

How, then, shall children learn to speak and write their native tongue with propriety? Certainly, in the same common-sense way they learn to do other things with propriety. If they ever learn to use the language, it must be *by using it*. If they would learn to speak it with propriety, it must be *by speaking it*. If they would learn to write it with propriety, they must learn *by writing it*. Spending so much time upon the mere technicalities of *parsing* never will secure the ability to write it with propriety, whatever it may do toward securing the ability to speak it with propriety. In our opinion, there should be a great change in the manner of teaching children the use of the English language.

Again, in the study of Arithmetic, the course pursued too often leaves the student without the knowledge which his parents suppose he has acquired. His progress is measured by the pages which he has 'gone over', and not by a knowledge of principles. "He has been through Fractions", says the father; or, "He has been through the book", says the teacher: "he certainly must understand the subject."

Parents, if you would ascertain how much he *knows*, not *how far he has been*, ask him to measure a load of wood or a pile of boards, and tell you its value at the market price. Ask him the value of the turkey or chicken you bought last, giving him the weight and the price per pound. Ask him, for example, what five and three-fourths pounds of meat will cost at five and three-fourths cents per pound; or, what is the value of a load of wood twelve and one-half feet long, four and one-half feet high, and four feet wide, at five and one-fourth dollars a cord; or, the value of nine and one-fourth yards of calico at eleven and one-half cents per yard; or, the value of eleven ounces of butter at one shilling a pound.

Ask children to write any sentence which you may dictate or which you may read from any newspaper or book, or ask them to write a short business letter, and you can readily test their ability to write the English language correctly, especially so far as regards the use of capitals, marks of punctuation, and spelling. JOHN WHITE OAK.

SEATS IN OUR SCHOOL-HOUSES.

SINCE the days when we sat on long backless slabs with legs twice as long as our own, and desks so low and far away that we had to almost lie down to reach them, great improvements have been made in this important feature of a school. So far as taste in design and finish are concerned, there is, perhaps, nothing left to be done; but in the physiological bearings of the height, size and relations of the parts the grossest ignorance still prevails. With the best seats and desks now in use, a child inevitably becomes round-shouldered.

In the first place, the seats are too high. The chairs in our private houses are all too high, except what is known as the sewing-chair, which even the longest-legged man is sure to prefer when tired. A stool which raises our feet six inches is a grateful relief to every body when seated in one of our parlor-chairs. Go to a hall, and, sitting on the rostrum, observe the audience; you will see that more than half of them, if the seats be as the average, will have their heels up on the bar connecting the legs of the seat. It is an awkward position, but more-comfortable by far than to have the feet on the floor. And in every one of these cases it will be at once observed that with the low seats the body itself is held much more-erect than when the seats are high and the feet on the floor.

The first criticism I have to make, then, is that the seats are too high. They should average at least two inches lower, and the seat itself should be hollowed out much more, so that the flesh, vessels and nerves which cover the sitting-bone should not, as now, receive the entire pressure.

The second point of criticism is much more-important, viz., the desks are uniformly too low, and the top far from the right slant. Indeed, just here is exhibited, in the strongest light, the physiological ignorance of all manufacturers of school furniture. For example, the pupil is ciphering, writing, or studying a map. How inevitable that he should bend over the desk in a most-unseemly, mischievous manner. Let the pupil resolve to sit erect, and as long as the strong resolution sustains him he will, when looking at the part of the map farthest from him, cultivate a most-undesirable long-sightedness, for the upper edge of the map is two feet or more from his eyes. The teacher exhorts his pupils constantly to sit erect, but as constantly finds them all bending over their desks. The poor little things try hard, but will never succeed so long as their seats and desks are as now.

Nothing is easier than to so construct the desks that the pupils of

necessity sit constantly and always erect. The part of the desk nearest the pupil should be as high as his heart, and should then rise at an angle of forty-five degrees. With this arrangement the pupil *must* sit erect, and each and every part of the desk is at an equal distance from his eyes.

With such seats and desks the pupil will be infinitely more-comfortable, and will never be caught bending over his desk, for the best of all reasons—he ca' n't bend over it.

DR. LEWIS.

WHO SHALL HAVE THE SUPERVISION OF OUR SCHOOLS?

My friend Jones has the most-unquestionable claims to the superintendent's chair, because he has done a great deal for the party. Was not he the man who rode in the cold and rain last fall to popularize the cause of his party? Did not he make several eloquent speeches, on different occasions, of great political importance? Was not he the man who consumed midnight oil in preparing arguments to present to the people in favor of certain party measures? Mr. Jones was very active. Early in the morning, upon election-day, he was at the polls, and watched every opportunity to gain the free suffrage of the free people for his side. Since the war fever began its unfortunate rage, my friend has been very patriotic. He was not the *first* to espouse the cause of the country,—he was rather cautious, until he saw certain *lights* moving; then he wheeled into the wake, and has been dashing on the rebels ever since. Now he makes speeches for the country, party issues having gone down with old and rotten platforms. Now he only claims the office of Superintendent of Schools as a slight reward for his services. Shall not his request be granted? He is in very good business now, to be sure, but he can put on this *slight* appendage and not incumber either.

Many years since my friend used to teach school. I have frequently heard him tell how he used to 'thrash' the boys, and how upon certain days he would find the door closed against him. He has not found time in several years (until within a month or two past) to visit the schools any; but his friends say he is amply qualified for the office he desires. Perhaps he will be nominated, for he is reputed to be a remarkable 'wire-puller', with other qualifications.

Mr. Smith, who lives just over the way, desires the office on account of his unfortunate position. He is feeble in health, and would like this little matter to attend to, that a few hundred dollars might be added to his salary. He has received the advantages of a collegiate course of education. He graduated several years since, at one of the best colleges in the country. He studied law, and has been practicing, with very indifferent success, for several years. He thinks he would like to change his business for a few years. He is of opposite party politics to neighbor Jones, but is, nevertheless, devoted to the interest of his party. If Mr. Smith should not be nominated and receive the support of his party, he will be greatly disappointed.

Brother G—— has a candidate living up town, who he thinks is just the man for the post. He has a favorite scheme which he wishes to accomplish, and this man is pledged to give it his warmest support. The scheme of Brother G—— has little bearing on the real interest of schools, but a very important relation to his own. Dr. S—— must be put forward. He is almost out of the practice of medicine, and can attend to the supervision of the schools as well as not. So my Brother G—— has resolved to advocate his claims to the position.

There are many other candidates for the office; but very few are found to set forth their claims because of their peculiar fitness for the position. The various claims mentioned are not to be wholly ignored, but they are of minor importance compared with certain others. A real earnest and warm heart in the cause of popular education must ever be the first element of fitness in him who is called on to watch over the nurseries of science and knowledge. Scientific acquirements or scholastic fame can never take the place of this. The dear and tender interests of children and youth require the sympathetic heart and the warm and friendly hand. It would be curious philosophy that would set a blacksmith to repair a watch. Railroad companies do not hire professional men to superintend the interests of the railroad: they take those generally who have passed through the workshop, and are thoroughly acquainted with the business. Such is not always the policy in regard to schools: their supervision is too often intrusted to men who have had no experience, men who do not appreciate the real wants and demands of the interests of education.

Commissioners and Superintendents should be men who understand the whole machinery of the school-room. They should be men above the truckling and 'wire-pulling' of political games. Elect men who are faithful, honest, and capable, without party discrimination, if you would elevate and purify the system of popular education. B.

Niagara Co. (N.Y.) Intelligencer.

E N D U R A N C E .

A strong and mailéd angel,
 With eyes serene and deep,
 Unwearied and unwearying,
 His patient watch doth keep:—

A strong and mailéd angel
 In the midnight and the day;
 Walking with me at my labor,
 Kneeling by me when I pray.

What he says no other heareth;
 None listen save the stars,
 That move in armed battalions,
 Clad with the strength of Mars.

Low are the words he speaketh—
 “Young dreamer, God is great!
 ’T is glorious to suffer!
 ’T is majesty to wait!”

O Angel of Endurance!
 O saintly and sublime!
 White are the armed legions
 That tread the halls of Time!

Blesséd, and brave, and holy!
 The olive in my heart,
 Baptized with thy baptizing,
 Shall never more depart.

O strong and mailéd angel!
 Thy trailing robes I see!
 Read other souls the lesson
 So meekly read to me!

Still chant the same glad anthem—
 The beautiful and great—
 “’T is glorious to suffer,
 ’T is majesty to wait!”

L. H. F., in ‘Hymns of the Ages’.

S C H O O L E X E R C I S E S .

WRITTEN EXAMINATIONS.—Written examinations have so far commended themselves to teachers during the last three or four years that now oral examinations, especially for promotion, are rarely made in our first-class schools. In Chicago the examinations for admittance to the High School and the Annual Examination are wholly written, and in some of the schools the scholars in the first and second grades have a written examination in some study as often as once a week.

The advantages of written examinations are many. Most of them will occur to any teacher who has used them extensively; but I find some of them so well stated in the Report of the Boston School Committee for 1860 that I can not refrain from introducing an extract here.

The Committee say “The examinations have more-frequently than heretofore been conducted by means of printed or written questions;

and the experience of some committees leads to their recommendation that each school be so examined as frequently as twice a year, in order *the better to determine the pupil's qualifications for promotion*,—and in order that a *satisfactory reply may be furnished in figures to parents who may complain that their children are not promoted as frequently as they desire*.

“ The examination of a school determines many other questions than the qualifications of the pupils; and the greatest care is called for in conducting it to advantage. It is possible to work much mischief, or to do much good, by the method adopted; and, without doubt, the examining committee have, with the best intentions, some times discouraged rather than assisted the teacher, and hindered the work of the school, by the plan and manner of the examination.

“The manner of the examiner is as important as his plan; and one argument in favor of the written or printed question is that the plan prevents, or largely modifies, any awkwardness or repulsiveness of manner. The modest pupil is not disconcerted by the verbal question, nor the conceited tyro tempted to vain display by the personal attention. Then, too, the questions when written or printed may be prepared with proper discrimination, and the danger of requiring less or more than ought to be expected of a pupil can be carefully avoided. Examinations that run to either of these extremes will positively injure the school. If the standard is put too low, the negligent pupil will be encouraged in idleness, and the ambitious teacher discountenanced in his attempts at high attainment. If the examiners demand too much, both teacher and pupil will be depressed and disheartened, in stead of stimulated to renewed effort. The effect of any examination is felt *in the future*, and often shapes the subsequent operations of the school: therefore that method of examination is best which requires a diligent and discriminating preparation for it, and which most favors a judicious and careful selection of topics and questions.”

We shall publish in each number for the remainder of the year a set of questions for written examinations. For convenience's sake we shall classify them according to the Graded Course of Instruction in the city of Chicago. Any person desirous of knowing what these grades are can obtain a copy of the last Chicago School Report, containing the Revised Course, of the Superintendent, Mr. W. H. Wells, by inclosing in a note to him six cents to pay return postage. B.

SPECIAL DIRECTIONS FOR ALL GRADES.—No books, nor helps of any kind, allowed on the desk, and none to be used during the examination. All communication must be avoided. Pupils must receive

no information from teachers, or others, respecting any of the questions. Every pupil will write his or her name in the upper right-hand corner of each paper. Each answer should be numbered to correspond with the number of the question. In Arithmetic the examples may be worked out on slates and then copied on paper, if pupils prefer to do so; but all the copying must be completed within the prescribed time. The solutions should be copied on the paper *in full*, that the process as well as the answers may be seen. At the close of the time specified every paper should be taken up, whether completed or not.

QUESTIONS SUBMITTED TO THE CANDIDATES FOR ADMISSION TO THE CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL (FIRST GRADE) JULY 5, 1861.

The per cent. required at this examination was 55.

ARITHMETIC.—1. Find the sum of the following numbers: Two hundred and two trillions, one hundred millions, one thousand and two; nine hundred and nine billions, nine hundred and nine; eighty trillions, seventy-five millions, two hundred thousand, one hundred and five; nine trillions, nine billions, nine millions, nine thousand and nine; seven hundred billions, two hundred millions, four hundred thousand, three hundred.

2. Multiply twenty-six millions by twenty-six millionths.

3. Find the weight of water in a vessel 8 feet long, 6 feet wide, and 4 feet deep; a cubic foot of water weighing $62\frac{1}{2}$ pounds.

4. A person wishes to make a strawberry-bed containing one acre: What must be its width, its length being 16 rods?

5. A house containing 50 windows, each 6 feet by 4 feet, is to be glazed with lights 12 inches by 8 inches, at the rate of 15 cents per square foot, no allowance being made for sash. What is the cost of glazing?

6. Bought laces for \$7,618.75, and found the entire cost after payment of duty to be \$9,142.50: What is the *rate* of duty?

7. I can sell property for \$7,500 cash, or for \$8,000 payable in eight months: if money is worth 12 per cent. per annum, which offer is to be preferred, and what will be the difference at the end of the 8 months?

8. If 18 tons of merchandise can be transported 49 miles for \$42, how many tons can be transported 54 miles for \$36?

9. A bankrupt's estate is worth \$16,000, his debts \$48,000: What is paid on \$1; and what does A get, whose claim is \$3,650?

10. What is the square root of eight thousand, eight hundred, and ninety-four hundred-thousandths.

(All solutions should be fully written out, that the method may be clearly seen.)

GRAMMAR.—1. What are the different parts of Grammar? Define each.

2. When are *w* and *y* consonants? How do nouns in *y* form their plural?

3. What are the different ways of expressing the distinctions of sex? Give illustrations of each.

4. Give the objective case, both singular and plural, of the personal pronouns.

5. Give the rules for the comparison of adjectives, with examples of each.

6. Give the synopsis of *sit*, indicative mode, third person of both numbers.

7. What are the different uses of *that*? Give examples of each.

8. Give the rules for the agreement of the verb with its subject.

9. Analyze "*Who has no inward beauty, none perceives,
Though all around is beautiful.*"

10. Parse the italicized words in the above sentence.

GEOGRAPHY.—1. Name the rivers of Russia flowing south.

2. Name and give the relative position of the grand mountain-chains in Asia.

3. Name five of the most-important manufacturing towns in New England: five of the most-important cotton ports in the Southern States.

4. What are the five largest German States, and their capitals?

5. What are the chief exports from Louisiana, South Carolina, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Virginia?

6. Trace the shipment of grain from Chicago to Montreal by water.

7. To what power does each of the Greater Antilles belong?

8. Draw an outline-map of Illinois.

9. Between what degrees of latitude and longitude are the United States?

10. What British and French colonies in America?

HISTORY.—1. First provisions for education in Massachusetts.

2. Account of the confederation called the United Colonies of New England.

3. Dates of settlement of the New-England States except Vermont. Early history of Vermont and admission into the Union.

4. What was the character of the early laws of Connecticut? What was the character of the early customs of New York?

5. Paul Jones and the *Bon Homme Richard*.

6. Account of General Hull.

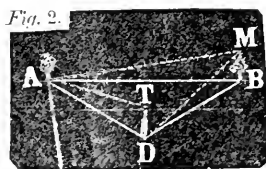
7. Battle of New Orleans.
8. Reduction of Vera Cruz by General Scott.
9. Name the Danish Kings of England. Who was the greatest Saxon King of England?
10. State briefly the causes which led to the execution of Charles I.

SPELLING.—Ingratiate. Bouquet. Vegetable. Parliament. Retrieve. Spontaneous. Prejudice. Jealousy. Loquacious. Prairie. Tradition. Comely. Sanguine. Fascinate. Infringement. Impious. Pursuit. Decease. Nauseate. Mortgage.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—IV (*July*). In Fig. 1, let A and B represent the position of the trees, D that of the tower, and C the point from which the first measurement was made. By the conditions, CEA is a right angle and $AC=BC$: hence, $\sqrt{(CE)^2 + (EA)^2} = AC = BC = \sqrt{400^2 + 116\frac{2}{3}^2} = 416\frac{2}{3}$ yards. Draw AF, parallel to CE: then will $FC=AE=116\frac{2}{3}$ yards, and BF will equal $416\frac{2}{3} - 116\frac{2}{3} = 300$ yds. $AB = \sqrt{(AF)^2 + (BF)^2} = \sqrt{400^2 + 300^2} = 500$ yards. Make DG, perpendicular to BC, and draw CDH; then, since $AC=BC$, and $AD=CD=BD$, CHB will be a right angle, and BG will equal $CG=208\frac{1}{2}$ yards.

The triangles AFB and CGD are similar: hence, $AF:CG::AB:CD$, or, $CD = \frac{CG \times AB}{AF} = \frac{208\frac{1}{2} \times 500}{400} = 260\frac{5}{2}$ yards.



In Fig. 2, let DT represent the height of the tower, BM the height of one of the trees, and A the base of the other tree; A, D and B being all on the same level. We shall then have $DMAT=1034\frac{8}{9}$ yds., and $DT=175\frac{5}{12}$ feet $=58\frac{1}{2}$ yards. ADT being a right angle, AT will equal $\sqrt{(AD)^2 + (DT)^2} = \sqrt{260\frac{5}{2}^2 + 58\frac{1}{2}^2} = 266\frac{8}{9}$ yards; $\therefore DMA=1034\frac{8}{9} - 266\frac{8}{9} = 768$ yards.

For $AB=500$, put a , for $BD=260\frac{5}{2}$, put b , and for $DMA=1034\frac{8}{9}$, put c , let $BM=x$, and $AM=y$. Then DM will equal $c-y$, and we shall have from the triangles $y^2 - a^2 = x^2 = (c-y)^2 - b^2$. Hence $x = \left(\left(\frac{c}{2} + \frac{a^2 - b^2}{2c} \right)^2 - a^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ Substituting for a , b and c their numeri-

cal values, and performing the operations, we find $x=51.1432$ yards, $=153.4296$ feet, the height of each tree. L. B.

II (*July*). Let a represent the principal, r the rate, and x the annual payment. The amount for the first year is $a(1+r)$. Let $n=1+r$, and subtracting the payment we have $an-r$. Adding the interest for the next year and subtracting the payment, we have an^2-nx-r ; and at the end of the tenth year there remains $an^{10}-n^9r-n^8x-n^7r \dots -r=0$, which gives $r=\frac{an^{10}}{n^9+n^8+n^7 \dots +1}$. Multiplying the numerator by r , and the denominator by its equal, $n-1$, $x=\frac{an^{10}r}{n^{10}-1}$ from which, substituting for these letters their values, 2200, 1.10, and .10, we find $r=\$358.039$, the annual payment. J. W. O.



XVII (*August*). The part cut out is composed of two spherical segments ACB and ABE, with the circle ADB for a common base. DEB is a right-angled triangle in which $EB=15$ inches and $DE=7\frac{1}{2}$ inches, from which we find $DB=12.99$ and $AB=25.98$ inches. Having the diameter $AB=25.98$ inches, we easily find the circumference of the circle to be 81.61856 inches, and its area 530.112548 square inches. The solidity of a spherical segment of one base "is equal to half a cylinder having the same base and altitude, plus a sphere whose diameter is the altitude of the segment". Multiplying the area of the base by the altitude $DC=7\frac{1}{2}$, we have the contents of the cylinder, half of which is 1987.92205 cubic inches. We further find the contents of a sphere having a diameter $7\frac{1}{2}$, equal to the altitude DC , to be 220.89375 cubic inches, which added to the contents of the cylinder gives 2208.8158 cubic inches, the contents of one segment. Multiplying by 2 we have the contents of both $=4417.63161$ cubic inches, the quantity which is to be cut away. J. W. O.

XIX. The contents of the pyramid $=6912$ cubic inches. Space not filled $=2048$ cu. in., and space filled with water $=4864$ cu. in. We have three similar pyramids in this question: 1st. the whole pyramid; 2d. the pyramid represented by the space not filled with water; and 3d. the space filled with water after turning the pyramid upon its apex. Now upon the principle that all similar bodies are in proportion to each other as the cubes of their similar sides, we have the following proportion: As the contents of the whole pyramid is to the amount of water so is the cube of the height of the whole pyramid to the cube of the height required; or, $6912 : 4864 :: 36^3 : 32832$, the cube root of which is inches, Ans. N. HOLT.

XX. As the circumference of any circle multiplied into one-fourth its diameter gives the area of the circle, it is evident that in a circle having a diameter of 4 the circumference and area will be equal. Now

just so many times as it is desired that the area shall exceed the circumference, *just so many times* 4 will be the diameter required. In this question the diameter will be 4 times $4=16$, *Ans.* I believe the rule I have given has no exceptions; yet I have never seen it in any arithmetic.

N. HOLT.

PROBLEMS.—XXVI. Given, $x - x^2y + x^2y^2 - xy^2 + y = 11$, and $x^2 - x^2y + xy - xy^2 + y^2 = -11$, to find the values of x and y . L. B.

XXVII. The hold of a vessel partly full of water (which is uniformly increased by a leak) is furnished with two pumps, worked by A and B. A takes three strokes to two of B's; but four of B's throw out as much water as five of A's. Now B works for the time in which A alone would have emptied the hold; A then pumps out the remainder, and the hold is cleared in 13 hours and 20 minutes. Had they worked together the hold would have been cleared in 3 hours and 45 minutes, and A would have pumped out 100 gallons more than he did. Required, the quantity of water in the hold at first, and the hourly influx of the leak.

(The above problem is from Hackley's Algebra. We should like to have our mathematical friends try their hands on it.—ED.)

STATE TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.—SECOND EXAMINATION.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, }
Springfield, Ill., Oct. 1861.

THE second examination of teachers for the State Certificate or Diploma authorized by the fiftieth section of the new school law will be held at Bloomington on Thursday, Friday and Saturday, the 19th, 20th and 21st of December, 1861. The examination will begin at 10 o'clock A.M. Thursday the 19th, at which hour all who propose to be candidates should be present.

The Board of Examiners will consist of eminent practical teachers from different parts of the State, chosen for their tried ability, enlarged views, and sound judgment and discrimination.

On application, by letter or otherwise, I will send to any teacher desiring it a printed circular giving a full view of the plan, conditions and requirements of the examination.

The Diploma (engraved), upon the best parchment, and handsomely embellished, conforms closely to the provisions of the act, and is in these words:

STATE OF ILLINOIS, }
 DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. }

Superintendent's Office.

The Eminent Qualifications and Distinguished Success of as a Teacher having been established by satisfactory testimonials and thorough examination, is hereby duly authorized to teach in any part of this State.

Given under the authority conferred by the fiftieth section of the Act of 1861, at the city of Springfield, this day of, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and

.....
 Superintendent of Public Instruction.

As will be seen from the above, this certificate is a perpetual license to teach in any district of Illinois. It supersedes the necessity of any further examination, and constitutes the strongest official recommendation of the holder, as a teacher, to the confidence of the public.

All regular graduates of the Normal University will be entitled to this Diploma simply upon proof of marked ability and success in teaching. The Diploma of the University will be taken as conclusive of the requisite literary and scientific attainments, but not of actual success in the school-room, which can only be demonstrated by trial, and which the degree of the University does not, and in the nature of things can not, either affirm or assume. The reasonableness of this view is self-evident.

It has been extremely difficult to decide upon the best time for holding the next examination. No day in the year could be chosen that would be wholly unobjectionable. It is hoped and believed that the time named will, upon the whole, be found as convenient, and to combine as many advantages, as any other that could be suggested.

It occurs at the time of the annual holidays, when, by common consent, a vacation of one or two weeks is allowed in nearly all the schools of the State. It will enable those present to attend the annual meetings of the State Teachers' Association and the Illinois Natural-History Society, either of which will more than repay the trifling cost of a trip to Bloomington. In addition to this, it will afford the opportunity of inspecting the Normal University, witnessing the examination of its classes, and visiting the Museum and Library rooms of the Natural-History Society, which, under the tireless industry and admirable taste of Prof. Wilber, special lecturer to the University, are an honor to the State. Teachers who have not visited these Rooms can hardly imagine the richness, variety and beauty of the treasures, from earth, air, and water, there garnered, classified, and artistically grouped.

Ample arrangements will be made for the entertainment of all applicants while in Bloomington, and they will share in whatever rail-

road facilities may be extended to the members of the State Association. Free return passes will certainly be granted over most of the roads, as usual, and it is hoped over all.

I particularly and earnestly request those who expect to attend the next examination for State Certificates to apprise me of the fact as soon as possible, so that I may make all needful arrangements for their accommodation and comfort. Give name and address in full. On being notified as above, I will address the parties, in writing, as soon as possible, giving special directions how and where to proceed on arriving at Bloomington.

As this is a matter relating exclusively to the educational interests of the State, the hope is respectfully expressed that the Public Press of the State will kindly lend their aid by the publication of this circular.

NEWTON BATEMAN, Sup't Public Instruction.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

THE STATE SUPERINTENDENT'S CIRCULAR in this number of the *Teacher* is one to which we call the special attention of all good teachers who wish to have the best evidence of rank in their profession. Having aided in the July examination, we can speak decidedly of its character and results; and the next one will be like it, except that the experience of the first attempt will suggest some improvements. No qualified and able teacher need fear to make the trial of his powers in the examination, which was very courteous; but if one has *reason* to doubt his knowledge or his abilities, he may wisely avoid the test. But to those who deserve it we regard the Diploma as an honor and a source of power. It should guaranty reputation to its possessor.

The time of the examination being fixed in connection with the meetings of the State Teachers' Association and of the Natural-History Society, persons wishing to attend the examination will have the advantage of those meetings and of making acquaintance with the leading educators of the State. Let us have a good attendance of candidates for the State Diploma; and may they all be worthy and win.

N. Y. STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Among the noteworthy things in the proceedings of this body in July last we notice the following.

A report was presented on the subject of Uniformity of Text-Books. The committee urge that frequent changes are great evils: 1st, pecuniarily; 2d, by loss of time arising from breaking up the pupil's association of his learning with its place in his text-book, and, further, from the change of arrangement, language, rules, etc., in the different books. The committee proposed that the Association should ask of the State the passage of a law with these provisions: that the supervisor

of each town should at a fixed time appoint a commission of three teachers to select text-books for the town; and after due notice of their choice the books chosen should be the text-books in that town for three years, no others being allowed. At the end of three years a new selection might be made for the next three years. The discussion of the report brought out an amusing variety of opinions. The report of proceedings in the *N. Y. Teacher* does not show what was finally done with the report.

Miss Anthony offered a resolution "that the probability or even possibility of equal education necessitates the possession of equal motives". She urged her resolution with suggestion of the different careers of boys and girls when they become men and women, and their effects upon education by taking from girls the reason for effort. This resolution, too, disappears mysteriously in the course of the proceedings.

Mr. E. D. Weller, of Oswego, presented a report on The Number of School-Hours, closing with the following resolutions; we give them as modified during debate:

Resolved, (1.) That from three to five hours each day would be a very proper standard for primary schools, this difference of time being made to depend upon the manner of imparting instruction and the kind of instruction given.

(2.) That in no case shall a single session exceed three hours; and in order that seven or eight hours may be devoted to study each day, it should be made imperative that lessons be partly learned in private or at home.

(3.) That forty-two weeks of school, of five days each, may be considered as best adapted to all localities for the length of a school year.

The first resolution was adopted: what became of the rest we can not find out.

Dr. Lambert presented a report on Course of Instruction for Primary Schools, which ended with a resolution strongly recommending Object Lessons in such schools. We have definite information that this report was adopted.

Two resolutions by Mr. Anthony, of Albany, were adopted, which we recommend to the careful perusal and consideration of our readers.

Resolved, That, inasmuch as the present state of existence is one of discipline and probation rather than retribution, parents and teachers ought carefully to exclude from the minds of those committed to their care the expectation of rewards and punishments as *immediately* following their good or ill deserts.

Resolved, That we ought to impress upon their minds the fact that, whatever encouragements we offer with a view of stimulating them to increasing diligence in the performance of their duties, these are not the proper *rewards* for such diligence; and whatever pain we inflict for remissness or wrong doing, this is not *punishment*, but corrective discipline administered in accordance with the divine plan of perfecting the human character through the agency of labor and suffering.

Excellent addresses and lectures were given by Mr. Sheldon, President of the Association; Dr. Fisher, of Hamilton College; Mr. N. A. Calkins; Prof. Chadbourne, of Bowdoin College; and Dr. Hill, President of Antioch College.

A report on Phonetics was presented by Mr. Farnham, who favors the introduction of the system; it was discussed with several voices in its favor; but we do not see what was done with it. Either the Association needs to learn how to transact business properly or the report of its proceedings needs emendation.

Boston, Oct. 15, 1861.

DR. LEWIS's Normal Institute for Physical Education will open its second course on January 2d, 1862. Those interested can send to him for a circular.

SCIENCE AND THE CRISIS.—Dr. B. A. Gould, Editor of the *Astronomical Journal*, in announcing its suspension last July, said "No American is able to investigate or study now with the calmness which success requires. The energies of every citizen deserving of freedom are needed by his country; and those who may not fight against armed treason may at least assume the burden of those who do. There is but one mode of laboring for cisatlantic science to-day; namely, by struggling for the maintenance of civilization against barbarism in the Western Hemisphere."

YALE COLLEGE has a Freshman class of 130 students, which number, says the *New-Haven Journal*, has been excelled but once or twice in the history of the college.

FLAG TO THE NORMAL REGIMENT.—The teachers of Chicago have presented to the Normal Regiment (Illinois 33d) a fine stand of colors, costing \$130.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

ADAMS COUNTY.—Our friend Mr. Marchant reports to us a very encouraging state of affairs in Adams county. The attention of the people has been aroused and turned toward their schools in a greater degree than usual, despite the influences that draw all thoughts to the national struggle. This change began, of course, among the teachers themselves. The persevering efforts of a few are rewarded with this success. From accounts of two Institutes held in Adams we glean the following statements.

The first meeting of the Institute was held at Quincy on Monday, April 9th; and the session was continued till Friday evening. About 75 were in attendance as members, with great interest. There was no help from abroad except lecturers for two of the evenings. The session closed during the bombardment of Fort Sumter, and within eight days six active members of the Institute were on their way, as soldiers, to the camp at Cairo.

The next session was held at Mendon, beginning on Monday, September 2d, and continuing until Friday evening. As before, the exercises were conducted by teachers of Adams county, among whom we see especially active Messrs. Baker, Marchant, Pettengill, Long, Jenkins, and Rev. C. A. Leach of Payson; the latter gentleman is an experienced leader of institutes, having worked with Mann, Russell, Colburn, and others, in the institutes of New England.

At such meetings a 'sociable' is often held during the session: at this gathering it was wisely put upon the evening of Monday. Wisely, for two reasons: it was an inducement to early attendance; and it made the members acquainted with each other, so that they were readier to take part without bashfulness in the exercises. From the report in the *Quincy Whig* we clip the following.

"Mr. Marchant spoke of some of the benefits of the Institute. Teachers had the reputation of being dogmatical, opinionated, and self-willed. It was not strange. They were always talking to what were supposed to be inferiors—always asking, never answering questions. It did them good to change positions twice a year, and take the place of pupils. It took out of them that treadmill habit to which the profession was peculiarly liable by the routine of the same school-room. Even if they should hear nothing new, the time was not lost; but such would not be the case. He never entered a school-room without obtaining some good. Our gain would be probably more *suggestive* than *positive*—some hint on which each would improve.

"One essayist dwelt at some length upon the dearth of language found among most of the pupils in our schools. He contended that the declaration often made by them, that they *knew*, but could not *tell* it, was true. Ideas preceded words. This was amusingly illustrated by compositions actually written by those of good abilities, and good mathematicians, and the supposed journal of a boy who used the word *got* twenty-four times in a few lines. To overcome this difficulty he advocated copying from the *book* rules, sentences, and formulas, or repeating them *memoriter*, till they acquired a vocabulary of words sufficiently copious to express their ideas without it. The study of our own noble language was overwhelmed by the excess of mathematical studies.

"Mr. Baker conducted a class in reading to-day, by taking a class and showing the way it should be taught. He very properly made a distinction between elocutionary exercises and plain, distinct, agreeable reading. The latter was what we most wanted."

Yes: and the fantastic performances that are some times shown-off at teachers' gatherings as 'elocutionary exercises', or as 'impassioned reading', bear about the same relation to good speaking and good reading as the contortions of an acrobat in the circus-ring bear to the useful walk and work of every-day life.

CHICAGO.—The *Chicago Journal* said, soon after the opening of the city schools, "Our city schools have now been in operation two weeks. The number of pupils in attendance is large. Some of the rooms are much crowded. At the Scammon

and others you may meet classes in the halls and dressing-rooms. In the Dearborn they may be found attending to recitations at the entrances, in the attic, in the pass-ways; and every available corner is occupied where study may be pursued. The rush at the Kinzie has been so great as to render another teacher needful. The Moseley has a hundred pupils more than last year at this time in the term. At all the Grammar Schools there is a large and increased attendance. All the seats in the High School are occupied—an ultimatum long and earnestly desired by fond parents.

"Nearly every one of the former teachers has been reemployed this year. They spent their vacations, mostly, in the country or recreating in the East, and have returned to their charges with new vigor.

"Many strangers from abroad have visited the schools recently, and express great satisfaction at the excellence of our system and the proficiency attained. There is throughout the whole of them an air of cheerfulness and sprightly attention to their tasks on the part of pupils that is truly refreshing. Notwithstanding the disadvantages which some of the teachers have to contend with, for want of suitable accommodations, apparatus, etc., they have taken hold with an enthusiastic zeal, which is a sure augury of successful work.

"Our moneyed circles have recognized the fact of considerable acquisitions of capital lately. Our schools now amply testify an increase of population. Many of the pupils are known to have come with their parents from St. Louis and other southern cities. Their sudden influx causes only a temporary inconvenience. The Board of Education are arranging for more ample accommodations and for the construction of at least one new school-edifice immediately.

"Chicago extends a cordial welcome to all loyal citizens. Her increasing trade will soon furnish ample employment for all industrious persons who choose to cast their lot here. The readiness with which educated men have responded to the call of the government gives us renewed assurance that free schools are the palladium of Liberty, and that a loyal people are serving their country well by nobly sustaining them."

DECATUR.—Mr. J. K. Pickett returns to Alliance, Ohio, and his post as Superintendent and Principal is filled by Mr. D. C. McCloy. Messrs. E. A. Gastman, jr., Shellabarger, and E. Park, are the other male teachers: beside these, there are ten ladies employed, at salaries of \$30 a month: the gentlemen receive \$80, \$50, \$50, and \$45, in order as named above. The schools are to be held six months only.

GALVA.—"Our school in this place is prospering finely, although not so many gentlemen are in attendance as formerly, owing to the war. We have in the High-School department 91, all working hard to succeed. Our Board of Directors has not yet commenced the miserable practice of retrenchment in schools, which we see in so many places, but has added to the improvements already made." M.

The Directors at Galva, as we see by their circular, add to their regular course some branches of study usually peculiar to private schools, so as to attract pupils from abroad: they also organize a Normal or Teachers' class. Mr. S. M. Etter remains in charge as Superintendent and Principal. He is likely to be also the School Commissioner of Henry county for the next term.

HANCOCK COUNTY Association met at LaHarpe, August 26th, and remained in session till Friday evening. Fifty-two teachers were present during the meeting. Lectures were delivered by Dr. F. N. Smith, of LaHarpe; R. W. McClaughry, of Carthage; and Rev. T. M. Walker, of Fountain Green. The School Commissioner, Mr. Geo. W. Batchelder, is again the President of the Association, which is to meet in Plymouth on the second Monday of April, 1862.

The following resolutions were adopted:

- (1.) That an exposition of the Constitution of the United States should be prepared and used as a text-book in our common schools.
- (2.) That every school-room should be furnished with a copy of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary.

JO DAVIESS COUNTY INSTITUTE was held at Galena, Sept. 23d-27th, beginning its session on Monday morning. The *Northwestern Advertiser* gives an account of the proceedings at considerable length, from which, as well as from a letter from the Secretary, Miss Ferrier, we learn that the gathering was unusually large and interesting. The *Advertiser* says "The Institute which has just closed is pronounced one of the most-successful ever held; and, considering the unfavorable circumstances of the week, its success is quite remarkable. Every day from one hundred to one hundred and thirty teachers have been in attendance, and in the evenings one of the largest churches in the city has been crowded by interested audiences. It is very gratifying to know that the distinguished visitors who have been present were unusually well pleased with the appearance and intelligence of the teachers in attendance."

The exercises of the Institute were conducted principally by its home members; but Mr. Wells, of Chicago, Mr. Bateman, and Mr. Pope, of Mt. Morris, had a noteworthy share in the work. Beside the exercises of usual character, we notice the following: a lecture by Capt. E. H. Beebe on the geology of the county; exercises upon the geography of the county and upon the government's system of land-surveys, by Mr. Hicks; and a lecture on 'The Effect of Teaching upon the Teacher', by Mr. Blanchard, of Dunleith. The report before us does not give the subjects of all the essays and lectures presented. Among the resolutions passed was this one:

Resolved, By this Association, that the complete success of our Institute is very greatly due to the untiring efforts of our School Commissioner, Geo. Hicks, Esq., and we take this opportunity to bear testimony to the faithfulness and efficiency with which he has, during his term of office, discharged the duties of School Commissioner.

The next meeting is to be held in the autumn.

MACON COUNTY INSTITUTE was held at Decatur, Sept. 11 to 14. We are favored with a record of proceedings by the Secretary, Mr. E. A. Gastman, jr., who says "We had a very pleasant and instructive meeting. The attendance was much better than we expected in these war-times; there were present something over thirty teachers and fifty to seventy-five citizens. The lecture of Dr. Paddock (who is a professor in a medical college in St. Louis, but out of employment on account of disturbances in that city) was a highly interesting discourse on the general principles of Geology."

The record of proceedings gives us little of the spirit and substance of the meeting, for they never get represented upon paper. A debate was had upon the value of 'singing geography', which the Association condemned. An examination of candidates for teachers' certificates was held in connection with the Institute. Rev. T. M. Oviatt gave an instructive lecture on Meteorology. Among the practical matters discussed we see 'corporal punishment and 'the best method of explaining simple subtraction'. Will not some body write us a good article on that subject?

The next meeting is to be held in Decatur, April 9th, 1862.

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We ask Teachers, Directors, Superintendents, and Commissioners of Schools, and Boards of Education, not acquainted with these Readers, to *examine* them, and see if they merit the high commendations every where bestowed upon them.

We would call attention to the following important points connected with these Readers :

I. Their Reputation as School-Books.

No other Reading-Books ever published have been so highly commended by Educators and by the Public Press as these, and no other have met with so extensive a sale within the first year of their publication.

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"I think this series of Readers leaves nothing to be desired, either in respect to manner, matter, or mechanical execution."—Prof. WM. F. PHELPS, *Principal of State Normal School, N. J.*

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Connected with the course of instruction contained in these Readers, a series of beautiful colored 'Object-Lesson' CHARTS, designed for the School-room, is in course of preparation.

III. Their Cheapness.

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IV. Their Adaptation to Family Reading.

These Readers are so highly attractive on account of the number, excellence and practical character of their illustrations; the beauty of the paper and printing; the choice character of their Miscellaneous Selections, and the interesting and valuable Sketches of Natural History contained in them, that they are as well adapted to *Family Reading* as to the uses of the School-room.

"These beautifully illustrated books will set the boys and girls thinking, wondering, admiring, enjoying, on account of the hitherto unrevealed beauties that surround us on every side."—*Clark's School Visitor*.

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"The series forms a collection worthy to adorn the shelves of the most accomplished scholar."—*Weekly Nonpareil* (Council Bluffs).

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Published by HARPER & BROTHERS, Franklin Square, New York.

ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

NOVEMBER, 1861.

NUMBER 11.

THE RIGHTS OF THE SCHOLAR.

NOTWITHSTANDING the superstition, which to some extent still prevails in the community, that the schoolmaster is a man of great wisdom and dignity, whose word is not only a law, but an oracle, we venture to state, as a general proposition, that he is not infallible. The time has gone by when a thing was so because the schoolmaster said so; and he has come to be regarded very much as other men are regarded — as a very useful person, who may be a gentleman as well as a scholar; who has a more dignified mission than that of being a bugbear to little boys and girls, and who, being human, has more or less of human imperfections still clinging to him. The march of intellect has elevated and enlarged the apprehension of Young America, and taught him to look upon the schoolmaster as a man who ought to be neither a George the Third nor a commanding officer at a country muster. The ancient superstition having lost its power, he no longer regards him as an oracle, and will rebel if he presumes to be a tyrant. The youth is disposed to be reasonable; but, having inherited an unlimited admiration of some of the ‘glittering generalities’ of the Declaration of Independence, he believes that ‘resistance to tyrants is obedience to God’, and is ready to ‘do up’ Lexington and Bunker Hill without very carefully weighing the provocation.

The school-room has always been a battle-field; and he who can not recall a contest between the powers that were, represented in the person of the schoolmaster, and the rebellious spirit of '76, represented in the person of an unruly school-boy, must have had a limited experience in the public educational institutions of our land. We do not

remember to have encountered a schoolmaster, though we doubt not there are many such, who had not been the hero of a pitched battle, or, at least, of a lively skirmish.

We do not claim to possess superior humanity or superior skill in the management of rebellious subjects, and therefore we do not intend to denounce or criticise the action of those who have been obliged, under extraordinary circumstances, to resort to summary measures. We have no sympathy with that transcendental humanity which would permit an evil spirit to flourish rather than cut off its head; which would permit a thrifty young tree to grow up crooked and misshapen rather than amputate an unseemly limb: for this sentiment, born of weakness, indecision, and pusillanimity, is not a fit rule of action in the school-room or in the world. While our public schools are composed of every variety of human nature that society contains, they will require the presence of a strong arm to sustain a wholesome discipline. But we believe that violence in the school-room oftener results from the teacher's placing himself in a false position before his school than from any incorrigible spirit of rebellion on the part of the pupils.

The schoolmaster is a sort of absolute monarch in the school-room, as the father is in the family, though without the instinctive love of offspring to serve as a check upon arbitrary action. If his authority is limited at all, its bounds are too remote from the ordinary sphere of school discipline to be remembered and felt. He may be very arbitrary, unjust, and tyrannical, without subjecting himself to indictment by a grand jury, or even an action for damages. He can exalt himself and belittle his pupil, without being even suspected by the shrewdest of committee-men. He is responsible for results rather than for his individual actions, so long as he does not resort to brutal violence. No method of procedure is laid down for him in given instances, and he is left to his own ingenuity, and to his own arbitrary will, in discovering and punishing the guilty, in stimulating torpid virtue, and in rousing the sleepy intellect to a perception of the work of life. The law of the land gives to our rulers no such authority. A sheriff attaches property at his own risk; a constable serves a writ at his own peril; and a judge can not hang a culprit for a state-prison offense, or imprison him for a capital crime, at his own discretion. The code defines every man's right, and, even when guilty of grave offenses, the *manner* of proceeding against him is as carefully regulated as the amount and kind of the penalty. The law not only tells the court and the officers *what* to do, but *how* to do it.

No school-committee defines whispering, or instructs the teacher as to the manner of detecting it, who shall be competent witnesses, or fix

the penalty for the act. It is all left to the discretion of the teacher; and, consequently, in one school it is tolerated, if not permitted, while in another it subjects the transgressor to a severe punishment. The misdemeanor-code of the school-room is one thing in one place, and quite a different thing in another. What is an offense in one school is no offense at all in another: for offenses are defined, discovered, and punished, by the arbitrary will of the teacher; and, of course, the misdemeanor-code will depend upon his taste and temperament. If he has acquired or inherited a tyrannical disposition, it is incorporated in the code. If he has no love of man, his code is savage. If he is rheumatic, his malady is represented in his code. If he has been disappointed in love, his scholars feel the disappointment.

With all this arbitrary power in his hands, it would be a miracle if the schoolmaster were not often tempted to abuse it—if he did not actually place himself in a false position before his school. The scholar has rights—in fact, ‘certain inalienable rights’, for which his fathers fought, bled, and died, or emigrated—as well as his instructor. He is a human being, an intelligent, rational creature. He has a heart and soul, as well as a mind. He is entitled to be treated with kindness, to be carefully instructed, to have his feelings respected, and his infirmities leniently considered. He ought not to be arbitrarily and unnecessarily compelled to submit to that which degrades him in his own estimation, or in that of his schoolmates. He is an embryo American citizen. He may yet be a governor of a State, a member of Congress, a foreign minister, or President of the United States. No man, not even the schoolmaster, has the right to tyrannize over him.

To take a higher view of the rights of the scholar, he is one of the children of God, endowed with an immortal soul. For him Christ lived and died; for him the world was created; for him the Bible was given. The eye of God is ever upon him, both when he sleeps and when he wakes; and every thought he thinks, and every act he does, is written down on the Book of Life. There are a seat and a harp in Heaven for him, if he will but win them. One whom even the lowest estimate of Christianity surrounds with the care and protection of the Governor of the Universe can not be unworthy the regard of the schoolmaster, and ought not to be viewed as a mere animal, whose sphere is servile subjection,—there to lick the hand that smites him.

When the schoolmaster understands and acknowledges the rights of his scholars; when he regards his pupils as so many immortal souls, so many embryo men and women, who are temporarily placed in

his charge to be prepared for the duties of life, he has, to use the language of modern mysticism, 'put himself in communication' with his purpose: he is in harmony with his intentions; and, if he be at all skillful, he will be in harmony with his pupils.

Some teachers, as it would appear from their words and their acts, go into school for the sole purpose of 'keeping order'—of establishing a certain pet system of discipline. The prominent idea in the mind is not instruction, but order—order as an end, and not as a means. It is not so much reading, writing, and arithmetic, as first, second and third position; nor so much geography, grammar, and morals, as 'fold', 'hands behind you', and 'walk on your toes'; and the last three in their independent and separate enforcement often cost more labor than the first three.

Order is indispensable in the school-room, and must be secured at any and every hazard; but the most disorderly school is that in which the least work is done. It is some times said of a teacher that he fails to teach well because he fails to keep order. We believe that the reverse proposition is equally true—that he fails to keep order because he fails to teach well; and the question of precedence between the teaching and the keeping order comes up for settlement. Which shall begin first? Suppose some accomplished disciplinarian, a man of arm and nerve, one who thoroughly appreciates the importance of the momentous 'first position', should be set at work in a strange school, where his only duty should be to keep order. Let him drill the boys all the forenoon and afternoon in all the positions, all the marches and counter-marches, up stairs and down stairs; let him practice them in keeping silence, in hearing the clock tick: What would be the result of the experiment, even at the end of one day? Undoubtedly it would be the hardest day's work he had ever been called upon to perform; and, if the boys were worthy descendants of revolutionary ancestors, the arm and the nerve would have had abundant exercise. This is not wholly a supposed case. We have known a schoolmaster who would not teach till he had established his own fantastic ideal of order. By the might of a story he carried the day; but no man was ever more heartily detested than he was by his scholars.

As we understand it, order should be established *by* teaching—just as the Emperor of France would 'stand off' a rebellion by making war on a foreign power, and thus giving his subjects something else to think about; just as a captain of a ship *makes* work for his sailors to keep them out of mischief and mutiny. And this is not a matter of mere expediency, for the pupils go to school to be taught, and not to be marched and counter-marched; to learn geography and grammar, and

not to be initiated into the tremendous mystery of the 'first position'. If the teacher devotes himself earnestly and faithfully to the work for which he is employed and paid, to instructing his pupils, the order of his school will give him but little trouble. If he fails to teach, he will fail to keep order, as a general rule, because the minds of his scholars will not be employed; and the same Satan 'that finds work for idle hands to do' will put mischief into idle heads. The good teacher comes before the good disciplinarian is born; and the latter without the former is a square circle with a straight line drawn round it.

We have alluded to the rights of the scholar. His first right is to be instructed; and if he is taught that implicit, unquestioning obedience to the teacher and a strict conformity to established rules are necessary to enable him to obtain and preserve his rights, that disobedience and violation of those rules defeat the purpose of the school rather than damage the dignity of the pedagogue, he will the more-readily understand and appreciate the rights of the teacher.

A great deal has been said of late about elevating the position of the teacher. Associations of practical men congratulate themselves on the fact that the teacher is better paid, better appreciated and more-highly respected than ever before. We gratefully acknowledge the fact; but then we believe there has been a corresponding elevation in the character and purpose of the teacher, and especially that the rights of the scholar are more generally recognized by him. How would it be possible for a set of men who were proverbially dogmatical, arbitrary, and tyrannical, to win the respect and esteem of a community whose members had passed through their hands? The impressions of the boy live in the man. Hear your professional friend canvass the merits and demerits of his schoolmasters. Were not two out of three of them arbitrary and unjust? Does he not regard with contempt and dislike this proportion of those who taught him? How can the community respect a profession in which, by its own estimate, only one of three is a just man and a Christian gentleman?

No man's character is so thoroughly exposed to society as that of the schoolmaster. For if children can not understand it in the school-room, the facts are remembered, and the conclusions deduced when the judgment is more mature. Every member of the community has had intimate relations with him, has 'summered and wintered with him', has seen him under a great variety of circumstances, and therefore knows him thoroughly. The estimate which society places on its teachers is obtained by personal contact, by actual observation; and, when we look back upon some portions of our school-life, we do not

wonder that the schoolmaster, like the hangman, has been regarded as a necessary evil.

Earnest and faithful teaching, simple justice to the scholar, which must come of a proper regard for his rights, and a gentlemanly deportment in school, will do more to elevate the teacher's profession than a semi-annual string of resolutions in convention for the next century.

W. T. ADAMS, in Mass. Teacher, January, 1859.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE DICTIONARY IN THE SCHOOL-ROOM.

A MERCHANT doing business at his bank would find some difficulty in explaining to a man unaccustomed to business the convenience of that institution, though he sees the need of it every week. So a teacher having at hand a quarto, and among his pupils a plentiful supply of primary dictionaries, might need to collect his thoughts before explaining to a visitor the benefit of such a work. It is, however, evident, on a little thought, that as a book for reference is more-valuable to us in proportion to our familiarity with it, in no case can it become of more practical benefit than after it is daily studied at the desk of a pupil in a district school. For the purpose of reference, then, its value as such being conceded, a dictionary can never be made more available than by beginning it in school.

But it is easy to show its application to many special school-studies, aside from its most-obvious, yet not most-beneficial use, as a mere definer.

Spelling.—For advanced classes the dictionary is better than any other special text-book. Spelling-books are needlessly incumbered with unfamiliar terms: a well-prepared primary dictionary contains only such words as are either in good use or constantly met by the pupil in his reading-exercises. The spelling-book generally consists in columns of words designed to be mechanically learned: the dictionary is an array of those words accompanied by reference to their uses and relations. Every term in the dictionary is followed invariably by its synonym or definition, while few words in the best-arranged speller are associated except by their sound or appearance. Children learn much by observation. Familiarity with the dictionary-page accustoms them to link definition, synonym and word, so that unconsciously, perhaps, these kindred qualities grow up together. It is to

be considered, too, that the orthography of a lexicon is authoritative, and that any word may be found readily when its orthography is desired.

How it may be used as a Speller.—Spelling-lessons were assigned at a certain school from a primary dictionary, supplied to each pupil. At recitation the teacher dictated words to be written on paper or blackboard, passing through the class in such a manner that each one spelled ten or twenty words, all differing from those of his neighbor. Then every pupil read from his own or his neighbor's manuscript and corrected errors. Members of the class were some times challenged to give definitions. The lesson in this way required study that some times modified their crude notions of words. It fostered observation, and indicated that something more than the mere every-day lesson was necessary for a well-prepared exercise. Books, corrected by pupils selected from the class, were substituted for loose manuscript. This plan is evidently practicable, and other methods equally good might be designed.

Pronunciation.—The most-constant use of a dictionary is as a guide to pronunciation. Scarcely a day passes in school that reference is not needed for this purpose. Practical teachers know how difficult is the eradication of local errors in pronunciation. A Yankee boy never sounds the liquid letter in *horse, cart, yard, barn*; while a descendant of the Knickerbockers generally drops the aspirate out of *white, where, which*. They need correction by a vigilant teacher, whose authority is sustained by a reliable standard.

We bring into our language words from dialects of civilized and uncivilized nations. If their pronunciation were followed as strictly as their spelling, such words might be enunciated by a knowledge of their physiognomy. But some of them we neither adopt nor treat as foreign. They live a fugitive life, unrecognized by those who know them at home, and unwelcome to us. One of the most-common is *depot*, which is seldom pronounced correctly. Others, well-known to the eye but unfamiliar to the ear, are the two nouns *survey* and *sacrifice*, *quinine*, *exhaust*, *niche*, and *construe*. Something more than awkwardness of school-boys must be held responsible for the mispronunciation of very many such words as these. Teachers, surely, are not infallible, so that for decision upon hundreds of them appeal can be made to no better source of information than the dictionary. This book, in every reading-exercise, must not only be by the side of the teacher, but in the hands of the pupil, as authority competent to decide upon constantly-recurring questions of pronunciation in every well-drilled class.

Geography.—The pronunciation of proper nouns is no less embarrassing. What American could, at first glance, decide on the sound of *Rouen* and *Berlin*, *Cracow* and *Austerlitz*, *Buda* and *Pesth*? And if *Marseilles*, *Bordeaux*, receive the French accent, shall we appeal to French authority for decision upon the accent of *Paris*? Such words as these are met often in reading-books and in the geographies used in the school-room. Surely, pupils must not be allowed to depend upon the variable opinions set forth in geographical indexes, nor on the more-uncertain judgment of their teacher. Unless he be wise in his own conceit, that teacher does not venture an opinion upon a subject so delicate. He submits to the decision of his lexicon, and his pupils follow his example.

Compositions.—A good writer of English must be acquainted not only with the structure but with the origin of the words he uses. Such knowledge, as it is gained by extensive study of etymology, can be best begun in the grammar school or high school, each of which ought to be supplied with a quarto. As to the power of a work like this to awaken zeal in the study of words, those only know who have seen a well-thumbed copy used daily in the school where it is owned.

There is a charm for young students in the picturesque shapes of Greek, Hebrew and Arabic letters printed in the text. Good illustrations allure to the study of definitions. So that many an otherwise weary half-hour, passed in conning the large dictionary, has been prolific of thoughts and suggestions that are themselves perpetually productive.

In the general influence of a good definer, an advantage is gained by the study of accurate expressions as promoting accuracy of definition, in grammar-and arithmetic-recitations as well as in composition-writing. And so, habits of thought, observation, and expression, essential elements in a good literary discipline, are early and rightly begun.

Convenience to the Teacher of Individual Dictionaries.—The personal comfort and convenience of a teacher seem to demand that his pupils should be generally supplied with directions as to the qualities of common words. Pupils then will not too often stumble over long words when reading; they will not annoy their teacher with questions on the pronunciation of the proper names they find in their geography-lessons, nor distract his attention from class-recitations as they promenade, at all hours of the day, first to the depository of the quarto and next back to their seats, making unnecessary confusion in the school-room. Their oracle at their elbow, in the form of a dictionary, is ready to give them a certain but silent decision on the questions they propound it.

Elements of Preservation.—Among intelligent children there is much respect for such a dignified work as a dictionary, if it be no greater than a volume for the vest-pocket. It seldom suffers the fate of readers and spellers. When a cover is accidentally torn off, how carefully is the first leaf preserved that it may not be lost! Though it be marked by many a pen, the book is seldom mutilated so as to be unfit for service. In piles of old school-books it lies nearest to hand, and while grammars are forgotten, it is consulted often by the owner with somewhat of pardonable pride that its comprehensive knowledge is at his fingers'-ends.

A glance at its Benefits.—The learned highly esteem such a book. They do not scorn the decision of an authority like this for the definition of terms they employ in debate. Discussions of doctrines furnish many cases in which the dictionary is umpire. Every uneducated man is some times in doubt concerning the application of terms which he hears from his minister, or reads in the weekly paper. The readiest excuse of common men, when asked why an expected reply to a friendly letter was not received, is that they can not spell well. A book of reference at hand when he writes informs him of the orthography of words, it corrects mispronunciations, and indicates certainly the significance of words before doubtful to him.

It ought to be within the reach of every school-boy to become acquainted with this book. Its constant study will make him exact, quick, ready; it will open to him a store of valuable information; it will contribute greatly toward his development into a practical man.

R. I. Schoolmaster, April, 1861.

SCHOOL-ROOM ETIQUETTE.

MANNERS reflect upon the mind that produces them, just as they themselves are reflected upon by the dress in which they appear. It used to be a saying among the old-school gentlemen and ladies that a courtly bow could not be made without a handsome stocking and slipper. Then there is a connection more-sacred still between the manners and the affections. They act magically upon the springs of feeling. They teach us love and hate, indifference and zeal. They are the ever-present sculpture-gallery. The spinal cord is a telegraphic wire with a hundred ends. But whoever imagines legitimate manners can be taken up and laid aside, put on and off for the moment, has

missed their deepest law. Doubtless there are artificial manners, but only in artificial persons. A French dancing-master, a Monsieur Turveydrop, can manufacture a deportment for you, and you can wear it; but not till your mind has condescended to the Turveydrop level, and then the deportment only faithfully indicates the character again. A noble and attractive every-day bearing comes of goodness, of sincerity, of refinement. And these are bred in years, not moments. The principle that rules your life is the sure posture-master. Sir Philip Sydney was the pattern to all England of a perfect gentleman; but then he was the hero that on the field of Zutphen pushed away the cup of cold water from his own fevered and parching lips, and held it out to the dying soldier at his side. If lofty sentiments habitually make their home in the heart, they will beget, not perhaps a factitious and finical drawing-room etiquette, but the breeding of a genuine and more-royal gentility, to which no simple, no young heart will refuse its homage. Children are not educated till they catch the charm that makes a gentleman or lady. A coarse and slovenly teacher, a vulgar and boorish presence, munching apples or chestnuts at a recitation like a squirrel, pocketing his hands like a mummy, projecting his heels nearer the firmament than his skull like a circus-clown, and dispensing American saliva like a member of Congress, inflicts a wrong upon the school-room for which no scientific attainments are an offset. An educator that despises the resources hid in his personal carriage deserves, on the principle of Swedenborg's retribution, *similia similibus*, to be passed through a pandemonium of Congressional bullying.

REV. F. D. HUNTINGTON, in Am. Jour. Edu. and Coll. Review.

MY FIRST INSTITUTE.

I AM Miss Jones, of the Smith School; by birth a New-Englander, by adoption a Chicagoan. I do not intend to enter into my personal history at this time, or stop to relate how it came to pass that I found myself in Chicago, sought an interview with our worthy Superintendent, Mr. Wells, and braved the presence of the august 'Committee of Examination'! Suffice it to say that, after a little delay, I was enrolled as a 'Chicago teacher': which honorable and *lucrative* position I hold to this day, and shall continue to hold an indefinite number of years, unless sooner dispatched by the official ax. That I am not remarkably-well known may be attributed to the fact I am a person of

medium talents, medium looks, and medium behavior. I am neither brilliant nor dull, pretty nor ugly, witty nor wise. I am not lively nor sad, dignified nor hoydenish, aged nor youthful. Indeed, my nearest neighbor, if asked any thing concerning me, would probably reply "Oh, she's Miss Jones, of the Smith School!"

You have, of course, all — well, at least, *heard* of first loves, first hates, first schools, etc. May I tell you of my first *Institute*? I will endeavor to give an account of it just as I looked upon it at the time, and hope I may at least gain credit for frankness. Soon after I commenced teaching, I was one day notified by our head-assistant that on the next Saturday an Institute would be held at the high-school building, commencing at 9 o'clock in the morning, and continuing in session until 12; also, that attendance thereat was *not* optional, and tardiness was reported to the Board. I thought the matter over during the two days that intervened. I asked what the exercises were, and received a satisfactory reply. I did not feel well enough acquainted with any one to ask the question, which is ever present to a woman's mind, 'What shall I wear?' I had no idea as to whether the etiquette of the place called for a dress-toilette or not. I was much cheered when I heard Miss Stubbs say to Miss Wilkins "Say, Nell, what are you going to wear to the Institute to-morrow?" Now, thought I, I can get an idea, for Miss Wilkins was much looked up to: alas! she is Miss Wilkins no more, and our circle has lost one of its brightest ornaments. Imagine my dismay when, swinging herself round a curve by the aid of the banisters, with her peculiar motion, which all who ever saw will remember, she drawled out "Depends on the weather, my dear", and I was left in ignorance. When Saturday came, I arrayed myself in my traveling-gear and started, expecting to be looked at, commented upon, and criticised as a newcomer. Reached the high school at ten minutes before nine,—I thought I would be perfectly orthodox—and took my seat. Did not see a soul I knew until Mr. Wells entered the room, and he did not chance to see me. Soon that big bell was jingled, can't call it rung, and Mr. Wells called the assemblage to order. *Query*: Is that immense article the only available bell in the high school? The *Chicago Teacher* was read: I do not now remember by whom, only that I was much pleased with it. I was, however, much annoyed by remarks of my neighbors; I will here confess that I occasionally make remarks myself now. After the paper, a model class, from the Erie School, and then, after a few remarks by the Superintendent, recess. Now commenced my trials. I believe the duration of that recess was twenty minutes: I thought at the time it would never come to an end.

Mr. Wells spoke to me, and, seeing one of the teachers of the Smith near me, passed on, remarking that he left me in good hands. I stared! Will you believe it, I had been teaching a *whole week* in the same building with that teacher, and had never, to my recollection, *seen* her before. I sat as if glued to the seat during the entire time; never spoke a word; heard all kinds of remarks passed upon dress, looks, and behavior. How thankful I was that I was almost unnoticeable in my suit of gray. However, like all things earthly, that recess came to an end. A discussion followed, of which the principal business seemed to me to be to see which gentleman could make the most sport and pass the best jokes on others, and escape unharmed himself. I enjoyed the fun as much as any one; but I could scarcely see how it advanced the cause of teaching. When the clock struck twelve, I was amused to observe that I was not the only one who was glad; and I drew a sigh of relief, and walked home, alone and very lonely.

I am aware that this experience is in no way remarkable; but I wanted to speak at this, the first institute of the term, protesting against this leaving of new teachers to make their way alone. By the second time I was more at home, and now feel as though I was one of the old hands. I am not, however, particularly given to making acquaintances, and I believe have never been among the first to welcome a stranger. But I often look at some of the merry faces that I meet at recess—do n't you think we have some *fine*, I do n't mean *handsome*, faces here?—and wish that I had their faculty of being agreeable at first sight. If I had received one such good shake of the hand, or hearty 'good-morning', as I saw and heard you, Miss Wilde, give to Miss Ball this morning, at *my first institute*, I should not now be writing here of what happened that day; for such a greeting, or even a nod of the little head and a glance from the bright eyes of Miss Rose, would have given me a sort of home feeling which I was long in learning. What say you, teachers! Shall these things be?

W., in the Chicago Teacher (MS.) for September.

WHAT IS A SENTENCE?

WHOEVER writes a grammar is obliged, when he comes to the department of Syntax, to define the term *sentence*, unless he chooses to use it without definition. Almost all our grammars, therefore, give a definition of the term; but there is considerable difference in the

definitions given. There is no doubt that most of them would agree in deciding whether any given assemblage of words is or is not a sentence; though even upon that point not all are agreed. Is there no scientific definition possible?

Upon consulting more than twenty writers upon grammar and kindred subjects, I find only two instances of complete agreement in definition. I here cite the definitions of most of them. 1. "A sentence is a number of words containing complete sense or a sentiment, and followed by a full pause."—*Tower's Com. Sch. Grammar*, and *Webster's Dictionary*. 2. "An assemblage of words making complete sense, and always containing a noun and a verb."—*Brown, Gram. of Gram.* 3. "Such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense."—*Bullions*, § 585. 4. "An assemblage of words making complete sense."—*Wells*. 5. "An association of words making complete sense."—*Chandler*. 6. "A collection of words making complete sense."—*Pinneo*. 7. "An assemblage of words logically and grammatically joined so as to make a complete sense."—*Worcester's Dictionary*.

The central idea of all these definitions is that a sentence makes complete sense: or, as Worcester has it, 'a complete sense'. For philosophical purposes (and grammar should be written as a philosophy), the definition is vague. Let any one take his dictionary, and, turning to the word 'sense', substitute for that word in the above definitions the meanings of the word as given in the dictionaries: he will see that any definition of *sentence* which is like those above given must be very vague. Webster and Worcester both give as one meaning of *sense* 'reasonable meaning'; and this is the only definition given by either of them that can be taken in this case. But it is not essential to a sentence that it shall have reasonable meaning: it may be false, or absurd, and still be a sentence. If I say 'A triangle is round: a circle is square', I utter two sentences; but they are without reasonable meaning. "Grammar", says Matthew Harrison, "strictly regards the construction of a sentence, and has nothing whatever to do with the truth or falsehood of a proposition. . . . If a proposition is ungrammatical, properly speaking, it has no meaning at all. . . . Grammatical arrangement, then, has nothing to do with the essential meaning of words." Of course, then, a sentence is to be known by something else than by reasonable meaning. Worcester's definition makes a good point when it specifies that the words must be logically and grammatically joined: so does Brown's in requiring a nominative and a verb as parts of a sentence.

I can not forbear noticing, in passing, Pinneo's definition of a *phrase*.

As he calls a sentence 'a collection of words making complete sense', to make the contrast as great as possible between a sentence and a phrase, he defines the latter thus: "a *phrase* is a collection of words which does not make complete sense"! "Class in *Pinneo's Grammar*, give an example of a phrase, according to the definition." Roguish boy at the foot of the class answers: "Aldibarontiphoscophornio bob-sled hermeneutically!" Teacher cries out: "What's that?" Boy answers: "A phrase, ma'am; a collection of words which does not make complete sense!" Teacher thinks the boy ought to be always at the foot of the class for not citing the whole book as an example. Covell gives the same staggering attempt at a definition.

A second class of definitions presents the matter in a different light. 8. "A sentence is a thought expressed in words."—*Greene, Elements*, etc. 9. "A complete thought expressed in words."—*Covell, Digest*; etc. 10. "Such a combination of words as expresses a thought."—*Rufus Nutting, Three Analyses*. 11. "A group of elements expressing a thought."—*Welch*. (This author says "a dependent sentence is one which does not make sense in itself." Of course he would condemn all the definitions of the first class above.) 12. "The expression of a thought in words."—*Sill*, and *Fowler*. Two authors agreeing, at last. Sill would condemn definitions 1—7 above, with Welch. 13. "An assemblage of words expressing a complete thought."—*Boyd, Elem. Eng. Composition*. 14. "The expression of a complete thought. A thought is complete when a subject is perceived as affected by some attribute in its formal existence or action."—*Zachos, following Scheib, Analytic Elocution*, p. 76.

Against all these definitions, except the 14th, the charge of vagueness may be brought. What is meant by *thought*? Take your Webster or Worcester or other dictionary and use successively the different meanings of the word *thought*, and you will see how incomplete are definitions 8—13 above. *Thought* often means a conception, or an imagination; but the words expressing a mere conception or imagination, although they express a thought, and even a *complete thought*, do not necessarily make a sentence. A red cow—a black coat—a yellow house—a sheet of white paper—these phrases all express thoughts, and complete thoughts, in the legitimate use of the terms, but not in the sense intended by the grammarians. The 14th definition avoids this objection by defining 'a complete thought'; but it is not clear in its second part, since the whole of the definition rests upon the meaning of the word *subject*, which in turn will rest upon the meaning of the grammatical and logical term *affirm*, which is in gram-

mar used with a loose and improper extension of its logical meaning. I protest that when two subjects are so closely related as logic and grammar, the grammarians ought not to steal the logicians' terms and spoil them in the stealing: the terms *subject*, *predicate*, *proposition*, and *affirm*, ought to have the same meaning in both sciences, so far as the two cover the same ground. I may have occasion to show some allowable differences. As grammarians, we may define *sentence*, which is not a technical term in logic, in such manner as to give it for ourselves a technical meaning; but it is not best for us to create confusion by varying from the established meanings when we use terms already technical in logic. Hence we draw an objection to a third class of definitions of the term *sentence*.

The third class of definitions defines a sentence by means of the word *proposition*. 15. "A sentence is an assemblage of words so combined [or arranged] as to assert an entire proposition."—*Clark, Revised Grammar*, pp. 16, 175. But Clark does not define a proposition; and I will presently show that if he had defined a proposition to be the same as a sentence, he would have erred; while if he admits a difference between a proposition and a sentence, there are sentences that are not propositions: hence his definition is defective. 16. "An assemblage of words so arranged as to form a proposition, or two or more related propositions; making, directly or indirectly, complete sense."—*Wilson's Punctuation*, p. 20. 17. "An assemblage of words so arranged as to constitute a distinct proposition."—*Barton, High-Sch. Gram. Proposition* is not defined. 18. "A sentence consists of one proposition or of several connected together. A proposition consists of an exercise of the judgment expressed in words."—*I. H. Nutting, Analyt. Gram.*, p. 32. This is nearer a correct definition than any thing we have hitherto considered. Butler defines in a similar way, but not so carefully. Mandeville defines a *proposition* as "a series of words expressing a complete thought": a vague definition, as already shown. He then defines a sentence nearly as Nutting does.

Against definitions of this third class I have to object that they do not use the term *proposition* in its strict logical sense. The strict definition of a proposition in Logic is that given by Brande (*Encycl.*, s.v. Proposition), and by Whately (*Logic, Bk. II, Ch. II, § 1*), "'A sentence indicative'; i.e., a sentence which affirms or denies." "Thus," says the Encyclopedia quoted, "*sentences in the form of command or question are excluded from the character of propositions.*" If then we wish to retain the strict meaning of the term *proposition*, we must not so define *sentence* as to make all sentences consist of one or more

propositions. I am aware that in logical writings the *proposition* is some times defined — ‘judgment expressed in words’: Whately so defines it in the very section quoted, but immediately adds the strict definition: Thomson (*Outline of the Laws of Thought*, p. 33) so defines it, and gives no other definition. But I can show that there are sentences embodying acts of the judgment which are not ‘sentences indicative’, hence not propositions.

Mulligan, the most-careful and -accurate of all writers on grammar, comes nearest of all to a true definition of a sentence. Unfortunately, as I view it, he falls into the error of using wrongly the term *proposition*, and claims that all questions and commands may be reduced to the form of assertions: from this claim, which is needless and seems to me unallowable, I must dissent. He says “Any combination of words which expresses an assertion, a question, a command, etc., or, more generally, any combination of words which expresses *complete sense*, is called a PROPOSITION.” (*Structure of the English Language*, § 11.) He damages his definition at once, too, by setting forth, in the note immediately following, that there are propositions which “express neither assertion, interrogation, nor command”. A very slight alteration of his definition would have avoided this little awkwardness. These non-asserting, non-interrogating, non-commanding propositions are simply ‘dependent propositions’ that put a supposed case.

“Well, Mr. Critic,” says the reader, “how will you define a sentence?” A very proper question; and in reply I think I can give two definitions, one of which is simple enough for a pupil, and the other philosophical. The former I will give now: the latter I hope to give hereafter with an explanation and proof.

A SENTENCE is a combination of words which expresses an assertion, a supposition, a question, an exclamation in related words, a command, or a wish. But any combination of words, which, by itself, would be a sentence, may be a part of a sentence; and it is then either a CLAUSE in a complex sentence, or a MEMBER in a compound sentence.

I can not now take space to show why I use all the several parts of the above definition and its explanatory remark; but as every true definition when taken with all its limitations can be converted, I will state my definition conversely also.

Conversely, any combination of words which expresses an assertion, a supposition, a question, an exclamation in related words, a command, or a wish, is a sentence, unless it is a clause or a member in a sentence.

SILAS WESTMAN.

THE LIVING DEAD.

We are surrounded by the living dead,
 Men whose whole lives seem purposeless and vain.
 They're bubbles in the air, husks 'mid the grain,
 Mere walking flesh-piles, without heart or head.
 They're dead as those on whose old graves we tread,
 Long years companioned with the flesh-fat worm.
 To show they're men, they've nothing but the form.
 They are not worth their daily meat and bread.
 The marvels of creation move them not:
 As well preach God unto a fleshless skull.
 Surrounded by the grand and beautiful,
 They're cold as icy stone of mossy grot.
 Their life's a dream, a festering in the sun.
 Snatched from this working-earth, who'd miss them? None!
SHELLEY.

PUNCTUATION.—NUMBER IV.

THE next task is the hardest of all that arises in the consideration of the subject of punctuation: for, as we have not a sufficient number of points for all the possible and actual subdivisions of a period, the colon and semicolon are obliged to do double duty; and the comma is entirely overworked, being used to mark many quite different divisions. It is therefore difficult to give general principles for the use of these points which will not seem either insufficient or liable to many exceptions.

GENERAL PRINCIPLE I.—The Comma marks necessary divisions within a simple or a complex sentence; the Semicolon separates the members of a compound sentence when they are connected by conjunctions expressed or understood; and the Colon separates the members of a compound sentence when they are not connected by conjunctions expressed or understood.

GENERAL PRINCIPLE II.—When the comma is used to mark the least divisions of a simple or complex sentence, and division of another grade is needed, the semicolon must be used; and if still another grade of division must be marked, the colon must be used.

It will be seen that the second general principle is a deviation from

the first; but it is a deviation which is often necessary; for if we use the comma as the only point allowable in a simple or complex sentence, a long sentence becomes often an inexplicable maze.

Before commenting upon these statements I must define my meaning in the use of the terms compound and complex as applied to sentences. I use them as used (and I believe first used) by Prof. S. S. Greene: they may be found, by those who are not acquainted with them, in any of Greene's books, and in Andrews and Stoddard's *Latin Grammar*. I copy the statement from the latter work. "A sentence consisting of one proposition is called a *simple* sentence. A sentence consisting of a principal and one or more subordinate propositions [i.e. propositions which depend upon or limit some part of another proposition] is called a *complex* sentence. A sentence consisting of two or more principal propositions, either alone or in connection with one or more subordinate propositions, is called a compound sentence." Examples: "Winds blow. Waters roll. Waves dash." These are simple sentences. "Winds blow when the storm rises. Waters roll because the tempest moves them. Waves dash where the ocean meets the shore." These are complex sentences, because the simple sentences first given are modified by clauses or subordinate propositions; and the examples consist of principal clauses limited or modified by the added statements. "Winds blow and waters roll. Winds blow when the storm rises; and waters roll because the tempest moves them." These are compound sentences; they are compounded by members which might be used as independent sentences, as appears in the first and second series of examples.

THE COMMA.—In the first general principle above I say that the comma marks necessary divisions in a simple or a complex sentence. It is to be remembered always that points are to be used to mark divisions in order that the elements of the sentence may be readily discriminated by the reader, and not for the purpose of making a full analysis of the sentence into all its real elements. When elements are closely related, no point is allowed between them. Hence Brown gives as his first principle, in speaking of the comma, "The comma is used to separate those parts of a sentence which are so nearly connected in sense as to be only one degree removed from that close connexion which admits no point." The following sentence, originally written as a mere sport in stringing together clauses bearing close relation, and which has sixteen clauses, each of which (except the first) is closely and restrictively related to the preceding one, may serve as an illustration of the rule, "use no points between terms which are restrictively connected."

"I have heard that there is in that country a certain mountain which affords a fine prospect to those who reach its summit when the southwestern sun so throws the shadows that they give the greatest variety to a scene which charms all who behold it with eyes that can perceive the rare beauty which nature has so lavishly spread out in a place which is so remote from human dwellings that few have visited it since the region was first entered by the adventurous hunters who broke with human sounds the silence which had brooded there since the mountains rose from the depths of the primeval ocean." This long sentence does not admit of any point between the beginning and the end, for the reason already given. On the principle named there is based the rule which prohibits the separation of the subject and the predicate by any point (although there is often a pause in the delivery), unless the subject ends with a verb and the predicate begins with one in such a way as to give occasion to a momentary hesitation. A point may occur at the end of the subject and just before the predicate, but it must not be put there for the purpose of separating those two principal elements. A sentence from Whately's *Rhetoric* may illustrate: "The effect of the concluding verb, placed where it is, is most striking." The logical subject ends with the first *is*, and the predicate begins with the next *is*, and there is a point between them; but the point is one of the two points used to mark out the phrase 'placed where it is', and is not used for the purpose of dividing those most-intimately related elements, the subject and the predicate.

But the rule thus given is merely negative. It has a positive statement also, which I will illustrate by an example. "I looked about the chamber for stolen property. On the table there lay a gold-locket and a portfolio. The locket which had been given to Jane by her brother had been lost for a long time; and the portfolio which I had sent to Mary on her birthday had mysteriously disappeared." As these sentences stand, the clauses beginning with *which* are closely connected to the words *gold-locket* and *portfolio*, and limit the statements to the particular 'gold-locket which had been given to Jane by her brother', and to the particular 'portfolio which I had sent to Mary on her birthday'; and it does not appear whether the articles on the table were Jane's locket and Mary's portfolio, or not. Now put commas before each *which* and after *brother* and *birthday*, and the subordinate clauses which are thus pointed off lose their former character of close modifiers; the words *the locket* and *the portfolio* at once refer back to those mentioned in the preceding sentence; and the subordinate clauses now appear, not as describing or pointing out the locket and the portfolio, but as mentioning incidental circumstances respecting

them. From the consideration of this example we may deduce a general rule for the use of the comma: in any sentence, *point off with commas those phrases and clauses which are meant to express incidental circumstances, and which are liable to be mistaken for close modifiers*. Generally, adverbial phrases and clauses denoting time and place are pointed off with commas when not closely restrictive, especially when they precede the terms which they modify. When I say 'pointed off with commas', I mean that they shall have commas both before and after them; except that if the element to be pointed off occurs after a period, colon, or semicolon, there is no comma needed before it; and if it comes at the end of a sentence, or where a colon or semicolon is required after it, no comma is put after it.

Another general rule for the use of the comma is this: *every element of the sentence which is, in the mind of the writer, parenthetical, or which is parenthetical by reason of its place in the sentence, must be pointed off by commas, if not inclosed in the parenthetical curves*. "What", said I, "has happened?" Here *said I* is parenthetical to the question 'what has happened?' and is separated from it by commas. "He, because of his strength, succeeded." Here the phrase *because of his strength* is parenthetical by position. The words *perhaps, possibly, generally, indeed, then, therefore, thus, etc.*, and phrases such as *without doubt, on the contrary, in the first place, as it were, etc.*, are generally to be pointed off as parenthetical; they are to be so pointed off whenever they, as some grammarians rather blindly say, modify the whole proposition in stead of the predicate. Single words, however, are often not thus pointed off, unless there is danger that their relation will be mistaken.

Phrases consisting of a nominative-absolute and a participle with their modifiers, are set off by commas: so too are adjectives and participial phrases, as in these examples: "*Fond of study and desirous to excel*, he was at his books late and early." "*The soldiers, burning to avenge their former defeat*, fought furiously." The compellative, or term of address, is always to be pointed off, even if it be the very short word *sir*: the answer 'yes, sir,' and 'no, sir,' must always be thus divided.

But one other case claims our attention in a general view: it is what I term the case of *equal relation*. "He is a faithful, kind, and good man." In this example the adjectives *faithful, kind, and good*, bear equal relation to man; and they must be separated from each other by commas. Terms in equal relation are always separated by commas (unless a larger point is required under General Principle II above) if they are not connected by *and* or *or*; and some punctuists

would put in the comma after the term next to the last in a series, even if an *and* be expressed there. Take the example "John, James and Joseph will go." Now, unless the punctuist's rules lead him to put a comma after *James* considered as the penultimate term of a series, even with *and* expressed, it can not be known but that *John* is a vocative, or term of address, the name of the person to whom the sentence is addressed. Nevertheless, most omit the comma in such places; even those do so who use a profusion of commas. We must notice, too, that some times a comma must be put after the last of two or more terms in equal relation, in order to avoid the risk that the reader will not perceive the close of the last term. The following sentence is an illustration: "I found my new pupil to be, in many respects, superior to, and, in other points, as strangely deficient in comparison with, his associates." Here, *superior to* and *deficient in comparison with* are in equal relation to *his associates*; and the construction can not be made evident to the glance of the reader unless commas are inserted as above. The following example from a book issued by a leading firm in Boston shows us how excessive punctuation may arise from following correct special rules without regarding the general limitation that commas are to be put in only when needed to indicate the sense and relation of terms. "The bloody contests of Marius, Cinna, Sylla, and their vindictive, but, perhaps, unavoidable, proscription, had thinned the ranks of natural competitors, at the very opening of Pompey's career." (*De Quincey's Hist. and Crit. Essays, Vol. II, p. 30.*) There is no need of the commas after *vindictive* and the four words subsequent; and so many needless points serve rather to confuse. Overpunctuation is a very common fault in our American books; the rules of Mandeville, Gould Brown, and Mulligan, as well as of Wilson's *Punctuation*, do not tend to cure the evil, but rather to perpetuate it, since they lead the writer to put in a comma wherever, by rule, there *may* be a place for one, without inquiring into the necessity for it. The rules and examples of Mandeville and Mulligan are the best that I know.

Let us review what has been said on the Comma. By General Principles I and II above, the Comma is used for all necessary divisions in a simple or complex sentence, unless a larger point be allowed under No. II. A comma must not separate closely-restrictive modifiers, nor be used purposely to separate subject and predicate. A comma must set off phrases and clauses which are meant to express incidental circumstances and are liable to be taken as close modifiers. Parenthetical elements, if not set off by the curves, must be set off by commas: so must absolute, participial and adjective phrases, and compel-

latives. Terms of equal relation are set off from each other by commas, if not joined by *and* or *or*.

These are given as general rules which cover most cases: a few other special rules could very easily be added; but it is my purpose to give the leading principles which can be readily carried in mind as general guides.

Another article on the other points and marks will close our series upon this subject.

SCRIBA.

SCHOOL EXERCISES.

QUESTIONS SUBMITTED TO THE CANDIDATES FOR ADMISSION TO THE PROVIDENCE (R. I.) HIGH SCHOOL, MAY, 1861.

1. Divide $8\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{.06}{\frac{1}{3}}$ by $\frac{7\frac{1}{2}}{.063}$
2. What is the least common multiple of 6, $8\frac{1}{2}$, 9, 12, and $16\frac{1}{2}$?
3. A, B and C start from the same place at the same time to travel round an island 96 miles in circumference. A travels four miles an hour, B six miles an hour, and C eight miles an hour. In what time will they all be together?
4. If a cubic foot of anthracite coal weigh $90\frac{3}{4}$ lbs., how many tons will a bin hold that is 12 feet 9 inches long, 6 feet 4 inches in width, and 4 feet 9 inches in depth?
5. An agent received \$9,500 to invest in cotton: How much cotton could the agent buy at $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound, after deducting his commission of $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.?
6. A merchant sold one-eighth of his flour on hand at an advance of 10 per cent.; one-sixth of the whole at an advance of 12 per cent.; and one-third at a loss of 6 per cent.: How much must he sell the remainder for that he may neither gain nor lose by the transaction?
7. A man bought a horse and chaise for \$400: What must he ask for them, in order that he may receive 25 per cent. less than he asks and yet lose but $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the cost?
8. I purchased goods for \$4,500 cash, and after keeping them eight months and twelve days sold them for \$5,640: What was my gain per cent., allowing money to be worth six per cent.?
9. For what sum must a note payable in 90 days be written, that when discounted at a bank \$6.40 may be received?
10. The hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle is six inches longer

than the base, and the perpendicular is three times the difference between the base and the hypotenuse: What is the length of the hypotenuse and of the base?

MENTAL ARITHMETIC — 1. A farmer sold a yoke of oxen for \$96, and gained one-third of what they cost him: How much did the oxen cost?

2. If I sell my oranges at 6 cents apiece I shall gain 21 cents, but if I sell them at $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents apiece I shall lose 21 cents: Required the number of oranges.

3. A and B invest equal sums in trade. A gains a sum equal to one-fourth of his stock, and B loses \$225; when A's money is double that of B: What did each invest?

4. A boy being asked how many oranges he had, answered that if he had as many more, and one-half and one-quarter and one-fifth as many more, and five oranges beside, he would have three times as many as he had at first: How many had he?

5. A boy being asked the time of day, answered that seven-eighths of the time past noon was equal to three-fifths of two-thirds of the time to midnight: What was the hour?

6. A lad bought some apples at four for a cent, and as many more at three for a cent; he then sold them at seven for two cents, and found that he had lost one cent: How many of each did he buy?

7. A's money is to B's as 9 to 11; but after A has spent \$40 and B \$50 A's money is equal to B's: What had each?

8. A grocer sells five-eighths of a barrel of flour for the cost of a barrel: What does he gain per cent.?

9. The head of a fish is one-seventh of its entire length, its body is five-ninths of its entire length, and its tail is nine inches longer than its head: What is the length of the fish?

10. A person being asked the time of day, answered that if to the time from noon be added its one-half, one-third, and one-sixth, the sum will be equal to one-half of the time to midnight: Required the time.

GRAMMAR.—1. Give the rules for the use of capitals in writing.

2. Write the plural of mercy, money, folio, echo, chimney, staff, penny, pea, index.

3. Give the rules for the formation of the comparative and superlative, and compare far, late, old, ill, and many.

4. State when the letter *s* is omitted in forming the possessive case, and give an example.

5. Define a personal and a relative pronoun, and decline *which*.
6. Give the principal parts of the verbs dare (to venture), heave, load, shave, shrink.

7. Correct the following sentences: Tell me whether I shall do it or no. Mary has wrote a letter. He has drank to much. I intend to have written yesterday. Who can write better than him? Which is the farthest north, Paris, or Quebec?

8. Analyze the following sentence, and parse the words in italics: Silver and gold have I none, but *such* as I have give I *thee*.

9. Parse the following words in italics: He is too wise to *attempt* such a thing. Be so kind as to *grant* my request.

10. Parse *what* in the following sentence: *What* I do thou knowest not now.

HISTORY.—1. Give an account of the first settlement in America.
2. Give a brief history of Pocahontas.
3. Describe the first settlement of New England.
4. Give an account of the Puritans.
5. State the principal events in the settlement of Rhode Island, and give an account of Roger Williams.
6. Give an account of the Witchcraft in New England.
7. Give an account of the Pequod war.
8. State the causes of the French-and-Indian war.
9. Describe the battle of Quebec, between Wolf and Montcalm.
10. State the causes of the Revolution, and give an analysis of the principal events.

GEOGRAPHY.—1. Give the boundaries of New York, and describe six of its largest cities. Describe six of the largest cities in the Southern States.

2. Name and describe six of the largest cities in England.
3. Name and describe five of the largest rivers in France.
4. Give the boundaries of China, and describe three of its principal rivers.
5. Through what waters would a vessel pass in going from Chicago to Sebastopol.
6. Describe six of the principal rivers in Africa.
7. Describe the Mississippi river, and name three of the largest eastern and three of the largest western branches.
8. Name the States that border on the Mississippi river.
9. Name the political divisions of South America, and give the capital of each.

10. Name five of the largest mountain-ranges in Europe.

N. B. To describe a river, state where it rises, in what direction it runs, and where it empties. To describe a city or town, state in which of the States or country it is situated, on what waters, if any, and its latitude and longitude.

SPELLING.—Physical. Pellicle. Placable. Docible. Forcible. Autopsy. Poignancy. Malmsey. Appreciate. Propitiate. Habiliments. Supplement. Vegetate. Cogitate. Tranquillity. Humility. Debasing. Embracing. Panegyric. Crystalline. Syllable. Sillabub. Cylinder. Symmetry. Pursuivant. Permeate. Vervain. Hirsute. Supercilious. Hemorrhoids. Architrave. Synecdoche. Blasphemous. Porphyry. Exhilarate. Scintillate. Sciolist. Equipage. Sacrilegious. Amaryllis. Amphycyonic. Barratry. Colocynth. Diachylon. Empyrean. Erysipelas. Idiosyncrasy. Ichneumon. Achievement. Abridgment. Chrysolite.

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—XXI (*August*). Let x = the number of hours and y the number of minutes too slow. Since 21, 27, 33, 39, 45, 51 and 57 are all the different numbers of strokes a clock can make in any six consecutive hours, $19\sqrt{x+y}$ must equal 21, 27, 33, 39, 45, 51, or 57; and since when it strikes first after true noon it must strike 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, or 11, it follows that $x+\sqrt{y}=1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, \text{ or } 11$. Now x and $x+\sqrt{y}$ are both whole numbers; therefore \sqrt{y} and y must be whole numbers, since a whole number and a fraction can not equal a whole number, and a root being whole the power must be also. Squaring equation (1), $19^2(x+y)=21^2, 27^2, 33^2, \dots \text{ or } 57^2$. Now the only one of these equations which will give $x+y$ a whole number is $19^2(x+y)=57^2$; whence, $x+y=9$. Since y is a perfect square, it must equal 1, or 4, and $x=8$, or 5. 1 and 8 do not satisfy the conditions; hence $x=5$ and $y=4$, *Ans.*

XXII (*Sept.*). This problem as given is not reduced to its simplest form, since 5yds. 2ft. 6in.=1rod 1ft. Adding 1 rod to 39 we have a furlong, which added to 7 will give 1 mile, making the example properly stand 3 miles 1 foot, which can be divided and verified without trouble: indeed, the example in the other form can be by using care.

F. F.

XXIII. It is evident that this is an example in Arithmetical Progression, in which the first term is 0, the common difference 5, and the sum of the terms 100.

Taking the common formulæ, (1) $l=(n-1)d$; (2) $S=\frac{(l+a)n}{2}$, and substituting, we have $S^2=\frac{(2a+dn-d)n}{2}$. Substituting in this equation the values above, we have $5n^2-5n=200$: whence, $n^2-n=40$, and $n=6\frac{5}{6}$. Hence it would take B $6\frac{5}{6}$ days to overtake A. s.

XXIV. Transposing, we have $x^3-x^2\sqrt{-1}=2x^2-2x\sqrt{-1}+x^{\frac{3}{2}}-x^{\frac{1}{2}}\sqrt{-1}$. Factoring, $x^2(x-\sqrt{-1})=2x(x-\sqrt{-1})+x^{\frac{1}{2}}(x-\sqrt{-1})$. Dividing by $x-\sqrt{-1}$, $x^2=2x+x^{\frac{1}{2}}$. Dividing by $x^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $x^{\frac{3}{2}}=2x^{\frac{1}{2}}+1$. Subtracting $x^{\frac{1}{2}}$ from both sides, $x^{\frac{3}{2}}-x^{\frac{1}{2}}=x^{\frac{1}{2}}+1$. Dividing by $x^{\frac{1}{2}}+1$, $x-x^{\frac{1}{2}}=1$: whence, $x^{\frac{1}{2}}=\frac{1\pm\sqrt{5}}{2}$, and $x=\frac{3\pm\sqrt{5}}{2}$.

PROBLEMS.—XXVIII. Within a given circle draw eight smaller circles, which shall not intersect or be included within each other, in such a manner that the unoccupied space shall be equivalent to exactly one-sixth of the original circle.

XXIX. To determine a triangle, having given the base, the line bisecting the vertical angle, and the diameter of the circumscribing circle.

Legendre.

[In the solution to Problem XIX, in the October number, the answer, 32.022 inches, was omitted.—ED.]

F A M E .

What shall I do lest life in silence pass? And if it do,
And never prompt the bray of noisy brass, what need'st thou rue?
Remember, aye the Ocean deeps are mute; the shallows roar:
Worth is the Ocean — Fame is but the bruit along the shore.

What shall I do to be for ever known? Thy duty ever.
This did full many who yet slept unknown,—oh, never, never!
Think'st thou, perchance, that they remain unknown whom *thou* know'st not?
By angel-trumps in heaven their praise is blown,—divine their lot.

What shall I do to gain eternal life? Discharge aright
The simple dues with which each day is rife? Yea, with thy might.
Ere perfect scheme of action thou devise, will life be fled;
While he who ever acts as conscience cries shall live, though dead.

Translation, from SCHILLER.

THE STORY OF THE SHELLS.

WHO has not admired the beauty of shells?—the rich lustre of the cowries; the glossy polish of the olives; the brilliant painting of the cones; the varied layers of the cameos; the exquisite nacre of the mother-of-pearl? Who has not listened to the mysterious ‘sound of the sea’ in the whelks and helmets, or wondered at the many chambers of the nautilus? What child ever went to the sea-shore without picking up shells; or what lady ever spurned them as ornaments of her parlor?

Shells are at once the attraction of the untutored savage, the delight of the refined artist, the wonder of the philosophic zoologist, and the most-valued treasure of the geologist. They adorn the sands of sea-girt isles and continents now; and they form the earliest ‘foot-prints of the sands of time’ in the history of our globe.

The astronomer, wandering through boundless space with the grandest researches of his intellect and the most-subtle workings of his analysis, may imagine, indeed, the history of past time and speculate on the formation of globes; but his science presents us with no records of the past. But the geologist, after watching the ebb of the ocean-tide, examines into the soil on the surface of the earth, and finds in it a book of chronicles, the letters of which are not unknown hieroglyphies, but familiar shells. He writes the history of each species, antedating by millions of years the first appearance of man upon the planet, the abrasion of the Mississippi Valley, or the roar of the Niagara at Queenston Heights. He searches deeper and deeper into the rocky crust of the globe, still finding the same types in older characters. As he climbs the rocks of Trenton or Montmorenci, he treads on the tide-ripples, the rain-drops, the trails of living creatures in the ancient Silurian sea, which he interprets by the rosetta-stone of Chelsea Beach or Charleston Harbor; and as he reverently unlocks the dark recesses which contain the traditions of the early ages, between the dead igneous rocks and the oceanic deposits which intomb the remains of life, the first objects which meet his gaze are the remains of a thin, horny shell, so like those now living in the Atlantic and Pacific waters that the ‘footprint’ enables him to reconstruct a brachiopod with delicate arms and complex organization, such as is figured in the beautiful works of Owen and Davidson, from dissections of the existing species.

From a Lecture by Dr. PHILIP P. CARPENTER.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

SPELLING.—We have said, some times, that a gentleman spells well enough when he can write correctly every word which he has occasion to use: to be able to do more than this may be the necessity of a teacher or of a proof-reader, or the boast of a pedant. But to spell correctly all the words which a person of ordinary attainments and duties may have occasion to use is more than most such can do. We lately gave out at a gathering of teachers twenty-eight words, every one of which is in common use, no one of which is technical or professional only, and no one of which is of disputed orthography; and seven of the words were these common ones: *sulphur, rope, ladies, soap, believe, melody, melon*. The result was, and has been whenever we have tried the list, that the best spellers would miss three or four out of the twenty-eight. We have read it aloud to persons who were sure, after hearing it, that they could spell every word, and who, nevertheless, upon trial, missed from four to seven words. We thought that all should have been able to spell them all, as they might have been called upon to use them. We think that exercises upon three or four hundred words which all who write letters or communications to the newspapers may have occasion to use, and which most are liable to misspell, would be of more value than 'going through the spelling-book' scores of times.

We like following from the State Superintendent of Pennsylvania, which we find in the August *Pennsylvania School Journal*. Mr. Burrowes might, if less-courteous, have pointed out to the County Superintendent that he had misspelled two out of his six hard words:

Question: The requirement of the Department in Orthography 'to spell any word in the English language' seems to dishearten some of our teachers. To test their ability, I used six words, seldom employed, viz: Xerophagy, Xelophagous, Zygomatie, Zinckiferous, Barytes, and Dydictylous, which few could spell. Was it the intention of the Department to embrace such words?—*County Superintendent.*

Answer: Certainly not. Most of these are words selected solely for the purpose of puzzling; and though in the *Dictionary*, they can not be said to be words of the English language in general use. Terms in the nomenclature of the sciences, and others that are exceedingly-rarely used or nearly obsolete, should not be employed as tests in an examination on Orthography. The words to be found in any standard work of general literature, or employed in refined conversation, should be selected; but such as are out of general use, or only employed in the sciences, should be avoided. Many of these might puzzle the best general scholar in their Orthography, and he would not employ them in composition without referring to a Lexicon. Perhaps this indicates the best rule, viz: To give no word unless such as a good general English scholar ought to be able to use in writing without consulting a dictionary; there being few even of the most learned who do not occasionally make this reference.

A person may also hesitate about doubling an *l*, or a *t*, in a participle or compound noun; the insertion of an *i* or a *y* in a Greek derivative, as in 'didactylous',

or the retention or rejection of a silent final *e* when other syllables are added to the root-word. But if he hesitates at the right place, and shows by his remarks on the point that he is versed in the orthographical structure and principles of the language, he is, so far as these instances are concerned, to be treated as a good orthographist; for such a person will usually reason himself to right conclusions, and if he can not will refer to his *Lexicon* before he uses the word in writing or instructs his pupils as to its orthography.

THE STATE EXAMINATION is now announced as changed to the week of the State Teachers' Association. Mr. Bateman made this change of time at a late hour for the accommodation of many teachers who could not attend at the earlier time. From information that we have we presume there will be fifteen or twenty candidates: we should like to find our estimate too small.

MR. HICKS ON EXAMINING TEACHERS.—We were both pleased and amused at the following remarks of Mr. Hicks, School Commissioner of Jo Daviess, which appeared last March, soon after the publication of the amended school-law:

A misapprehension exists in some quarters as to the rule which will govern the grading of certificates in this county. Some entertain the idea that the grades are to be compared as follows: *First Grade*—good; granted only to well-qualified teachers. *Second Grade*—worse; granted to those who have some little qualification. *Third Grade*—bad; granted to any one who chooses to apply.

For the information of school-directors and teachers, it is desirable that the rule of grading certificates should be known, and it is as follows: *Third Grade*—fair; granted only to those who are pretty-well qualified to teach school. *Second Grade*—quite good; granted to those who are very-well qualified as teachers. *First Grade*—best; granted only to those who have a thorough knowledge of the branches to be taught, and of the *best methods of teaching*.

In determining the grade of each teacher, the School Commissioner can have no other criterion than the answers given to the questions asked. There are great differences between thoroughly-informed teachers as to the tact in teaching, power in securing order, and ability to enlist the love of the pupils. Of these differences the Commissioner can not, and does not assume to, judge from an examination; but when school-directors find, from their visits to the school-room, that they have a teacher who possesses these qualifications in an eminent degree, they should retain that teacher as long as possible.

BOSTON PUBLIC SCHOOLS.—The semi-annual report just published has some interesting statistics. The total expenses for the year were \$398,282, and the previous year \$373,665. The average attendance in all the schools was 24,152, which is 1843 more than the year previous. The cost per scholar was \$15.03; of which \$10.83 was for tuition. The expenditure for buildings and lots was \$230,267; being the largest amount ever expended by the city in one year for these purposes. †.

ARTICLES ON GYMNASTICS.—Our next number will contain the first of a series of illustrated articles on Gymnastics, by Dr. Dio Lewis, the Editor of 'Lewis's New Gymnastics'.

THE JOURNAL OF PROGRESS, we are very sorry to say, has been discontinued, and its list transferred to the *Ohio Educational Monthly*. The *Journal* was a strong magazine, having a vigor that few of our educationals approach; and its special interest in the phonetic movement gave it a special value. We wish—rather than hope—that it may prove a phoenix.

SCHOOL-MAPS BY GUYOT.—Mr. Charles Scribner, the New-York publisher, informs us that Prof. Guyot is preparing for him a set of school-maps. Of their precise character we are not informed: Mr. Scribner will let the readers of the *Teacher* hear from him again as soon as the series is far enough advanced. Prof. Guyot's works are never made to be hid under a bushel: they give light, truly: we need not praise them.

LORIN ANDREWS, LL.D., President of Kenyon College, died at Gambier, Ohio, September 18, 1861. He was a fine scholar, and an energetic, active and excellent man; as a college-officer and as a friend of popular education he was highly valued. When our country called for soldiers he was early in the field, and became Colonel of the 4th Ohio Regiment, which he commanded in their campaign in Western Virginia. He returned to Gambier, August 26, ill with typhoid fever resulting from exposures and labors in the field and camp, and soon passed away.

MAKING GAME OF THE SCHOOLMASTER.—*Sportsman*.—I say, boy, is there any thing to shoot about here? *Boy*.—Well, nothing right about here; but the schoolmaster is just over the hill yonder: you can pop him over, for aught I care.

L O C A L I N T E L L I G E N C E .

THE OGLE COUNTY TEACHERS' INSTITUTE met at Mt. Morris on Monday, September 24th, and continued until Saturday noon, fast-day excepted, under the direction of Mr. James H. Blodgett, of Amboy. The number of teachers present was over fifty. Lectures were delivered on 'School-System', and on 'Primary Instruction', by Mr. Blodgett; on the 'Majesty of Law', by Mr. A. M. Gow, of Dixon; and by Mr. A. B. Pickard, of Mt. Morris, on 'Orthography'. The students in the Seminary were excused from their usual recitations, and many of them availed themselves of the privilege. The Institute was formed into a model school, and regularly drilled in all the branches taught in our common schools.

The Institute thanked Messrs. Blodgett, Gow, and Pickard, for their instructions, and the School Commissioner, Mr. E. W. Little, for his faithful efforts and assistance: also, the ladies of Mt. Morris and teachers of the Seminary, for music. The session is reported to have been very interesting. We have to thank the Secretary, Mr. John Page, for a sketch of the proceedings.

McHENRY COUNTY INSTITUTE met at—Woodstock, we believe, the minutes do not say where,—on October 8th, and continued in session five days. The reported exercises show a considerable variety, and many took part in conducting them: we see most-prominent the names of Messrs. R. K. Todd, L. B. Kellogg, A. W. Smith, Ira Beckwith, J. A. Parrish, D. Hicks, E. S. Hayden, and Misses Paxson and Thompson. It always shows a good Institute when there is no bashfulness or awkwardness about taking hold of the work, and when each contributes a share to the interest and instruction.

The following practical questions were discussed: 'Is it advisable to have reg-

ular exercises in Composition and Declamation in our common schools? If so, how?' 'Should a teacher require his pupils to give the exact words of the author in reciting rules and definitions?' 'Is corporal punishment necessary under *any* circumstances by the teacher?' On the latter question we are told the decision of the house was in the affirmative.

EXAMINATION FOR STATE CERTIFICATES—*Change of Time*.—At the request of many teachers who could not otherwise attend, notice is hereby given that the next Examination for State Certificates will be held at Bloomington, on Tuesday and Wednesday, the 24th and 25th of December, in stead of the 19th, 20th, and 21st, as previously announced

NEWTON BATEMAN, Supt. Pub. Inst.

PROGRAMME FOR THE EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION,

AT BLOOMINGTON, DECEMBER, 25, 26, AND 27, 1861.

Wednesday, December 25, 3 P.M.—Meet with the State Natural-History Society to dedicate their Museum in the Normal-University Building: Address by Prof. J. B. Turner, of Jacksonville. 7 P.M.—Social gathering in Royce Hall.

Thursday, 9 A.M.—Devotional Exercises. 9.15.—Address by the President, W. H. Wells, Esq. 10.—Essay by Miss S. L. Stocking, of Galva: subject, 'Importance of History in Common Schools'. Music. 10.45.—Drill Exercise, by A. H. Fitch. 11.15.—Discussion. 2 P.M.—Drill Exercise: Map-Drawing, by W. Woodard. 2.30.—Lecture: 'Graded Schools', by Wm. M. Baker, of Quincy. 3.20.—Music. Discussion: 'Ought Free Public High Schools to be Sustained?' 4.—Essay: 'Grammar Schools', by J. Johannot, of Joliet. 7 P.M.—Lecture: 'Female Education', by President J. M. Sturtevant, of Illinois College.

Friday, 9 A.M.—Devotions. 9.10.—Essay: 'Primary Schools', by Miss A. A. Mahoney, of Chicago. 9.25.—Exercise in Gymnastics. 9.35.—Drill Exercise, by the President. Music. 10.30.—Election of Officers. 11.—Essay: 'How can Chemistry be Taught in Common Schools?' by Prof. J. B. Turner. Discussion on the subject of the Essay. 2 P.M.—Music and Gymnastics. 2.15.—Essay: 'Teachers' Institutes', by Mr. Charles H. Allen, of Wisconsin. Discussion on the same topic. Music. 3.30.—Lecture: 'School Discipline', by Rev. G. I. King, of Quincy. Business, 7.—Lecture, by Hon. N. Bateman. Concluding business.

The choir of the Normal School will furnish the music for the whole session.

All ladies attending the meeting will be cordially entertained by the citizens of Bloomington, and hotel-charges reduced to male members of the Association. The St. Louis, Alton and Chicago and the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy railroads will return members who pass over those roads in coming to the meeting, without charge; it is expected that other roads will grant similar favors.

W. H. WELLS, President.

I. STONE, JR., } Committee.
E. C. HEWETT, } on Programme.
WM. M. BAKER, }

NOTES AND QUERIES.

ANSWERS.—*Query 46* (p. 303). "Who has been called the greatest, wisest and meanest of all mankind?"

Answer. In Pope's *Essay on Man*, lines 281-2, we find the following:

"If parts allure thee, think how Bacon shined;
The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind!"

The allusion is to Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam, who is famous under the common name of Lord Bacon. BERTRAM.

Query 47 (p. 303). "Who wrote the celebrated romance called *Utopia*?"

Answer. Sir Thomas More, who was made lord-chancellor to Henry VIII in 1529, being the first layman that ever held the office. The *Utopia* was published at Louvain in 1516, when he was thirty-six years of age. It was written in Latin; and gives an account of an imaginary commonwealth in the island of Utopia, where the social and political life were perfect. *Utopia* signifies 'No-place'; the name is from the Greek *ou* and *τοπος*, and not, as might easily be supposed, from *eu* (good) and *τοπος* (place). Q. Q.

Query 48 (p. 303). "Who introduced the printing-press into England?"

Answer. The question is not free from doubt. There are several copies of a book dated 1468, and printed at Oxford, 'Exposicio sancti Jeronimi in simbolo apostolorum'; and those who believe it the first book printed in England ascribe it to a foreigner, one Frederic Corsellis. Others claim that the date upon it is incorrect; that in stead of MCCCCLXVIII it should be MCCCCLXXVIII. The large majority of investigators say that William Caxton was the first printer in England. He was born 1412 and died in 1492, the year of the discovery of America. The first book in the English language was printed by him without date; some fix its issue at Ghent in 1471; others, as Allibone sets forth, with greater probability say it was issued at Cologne in 1476. This, however, being taken as the conclusion of the work, the earlier date may mark its beginning. A copy of this which had belonged to the queen of Edward IV, Elizabeth Grey, sold at the Roxburgh sale in 1812 for £1060 18s. Caxton set up a press at Westminster soon after 1470, and his first book there, 'The Game of Chess', bears date of 1474. We may therefore safely fix the date of the first book printed in England and in English at 18 years before the discovery of America. EX-TYPO.

QUERY 50. What is meant by the phrase 'A Roland for an Oliver?' F. F.

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ILLINOIS TEACHER.

VOLUME VII.

DECEMBER, 1861.

NUMBER 12.

MORE SALT-AND-SUGAR PHILOSOPHY IN A TEXT-BOOK.

IN the June number of this volume of the *Teacher* appeared an article entitled 'A Solution Question, and Answer thereto', in which an error in *Parker's Philosophy* was exposed: the light of experiment being thrown upon a fancied fact and its very fanciful explanation, it appeared that the author of that work had indulged in some baseless hypotheses, and had offered them to our youth as the results of philosophy. I have the same error, with some additional ones, to expose and correct in another text-book, of more recent date. In *Quackenbos's Philosophy* we find the following paragraphs:

"In like manner a certain amount of salt and sugar may be successively dropped into a tumbler brimfull of water, without causing it to overflow. The particles of water, which are supposed to be globular, do not every where touch each other; and the particles of salt are accommodated in the interstices between them. These, in turn, leave minute spaces into which the still smaller particles of sugar find their way." (*Page 13.*) The author then suggests an illustration like that given by Mr. Parker: that if we should take a pan full of oranges, we might put a considerable quantity of peas into the pan at the same time, since they would occupy the spaces between the oranges; and that we might then add a quantity of fine gravel, which would occupy the now smaller interstices.

"Porosity is the property of having pores. It belongs to all bodies. That water is porous is proved by the fact that a vessel filled with it will receive considerable quantities of salt and sugar without overflowing. What can become of these substances unless, as shown in Fig. 2, their particles lodge in the interstices between the particles of water? It is on this principle that hot water receives more salt and sugar with-

out overflowing than cold. Heat expands water,—that is, forces its particles further apart, and thus enables a greater quantity of salt and sugar to lodge between them.” (*Page 19.*)

As I may presume that some will see this number of the *Teacher* who have not seen the article of last June, I will state the substance of that article. First, there was cited the objection of a teacher in Wisconsin that the orange-peas-and-fine-gravel illustration is insufficient; for, if we first put the fine gravel into the pan with our oranges, we can not get in the peas; whereas either the salt or the sugar may be dissolved first without affecting the result. Next I attacked the assumed fact, and showed that there is no such fact: I detailed my experiments, as follows: I dissolved in two fluid-ounces of cold water (about 1000 grains) 360 grains of table-salt, which nearly saturated it, and found that the bulk of the solution was about $15\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. greater than before: I then added to the same liquid 720 grains of sugar; and when it was entirely dissolved, I found a further increase of bulk amounting to $43\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. more, making a total increase of about 60 per cent. I found that if I had added sugar enough to make, according to Youmans, a saturated solution, the bulk would have been increased $137\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. I also varied the experiment by dissolving the sugar first and then the salt, with the same results.

This settles the question of *fact*; and, of course, if there is no such fact, that theory of solution can not be true. In dissolving any substance, water does not simply harbor it in the interstices of its *pores*, if it has any. Mr. George Payn Quackenbos is as deep in the mire as his fellow dreamer, Mr. Richard Green Parker. Not content with asserting all that a philosopher can fairly assert, viz., that porosity is a property of *many* bodies, he asserts it of *all* bodies, without any evidence; and he then tries to prove it respecting water by a manufactured ‘fact’. He argues the question: “What can become of these substances,” he asks, “unless their particles lodge in the interstices between the particles of water?” Well, sir, I think it would be much better for you and all others to stop giving explanations so positively when you reach the limits of your knowledge. It may not be pleasant to a teacher or a philosopher to say ‘I don’t know’; but he often has no right to say any thing else. If we are willing to be guilty of the honest truth with our pupils, we shall tell them that all speculations about the atoms of matter, their forms, arrangements, relations, and even their very existence, are but imaginations; they are mere conceptions or ways of thinking, that we get up as the ancients got up their theory of crystal spheres carrying the sun, moon and stars in the heavens above us.

It should be noted, too, that there is no reason to regard solution as a mechanical act. It does not come within the province of Natural Philosophy: it belongs to Chemistry. Whoever wants information on the subject from books resorts to works on chemistry, where it is treated as a chemical phenomenon. The chemists, having to deal with facts that do not admit of any mechanical explanation, although they have hypotheses enough of their own to confess, do not feel the need of any such explanations, and do not attempt them.

But Mr. Quackenbos, having nicely tucked away his salt and sugar in the chinks of the water, favors us with a theory of solution by aid of heat. 'Heat expands the water, forces its particles further apart, and so lets in more salt and sugar.' Now I should like to know what becomes of these little particles of heat that thus act the part of wedges. 'Why, sir, heat has no particles.' But if the argument be good that the salt and sugar are stowed away in the chinks of the water because the particles of water are not separated, why may I not claim that they are separated by particles of heat when the water is warmed? Without, however, attempting to make a web of moonshine to catch flying nonsense, let us try this theory of solution by a few facts.

Separation of the particles of water by heat is offered as a reason why hot water will dissolve more salt and sugar, and of course more of other substances, than cold water. But it happens that *hot water will not dissolve more salt than cold water*. Graham's *Chemistry*, the only large work that I have at hand, says "According to the experiments of Fuchs, pure chloride of sodium [common salt] has exactly the same degree of solubility in hot and cold water, requiring 2.7 parts of water to dissolve it; or, 100 parts of water dissolve 37 of salt at all temperatures." (Page 328.) Mr. Quackenbos's theory breaks down, then, on the very first example that he names in illustration. And it is singular that the practical chemist Youmans, in his *Handbook of Household Science* (p. 208), suggests precisely the contrary reason for the aid which heat renders to solution: "this it seems to do", says he, by "repelling the particles of the solid body from each other, thus assisting the water to insinuate itself among them, by which its action is helped." This reasoning is true so far as the mere act of solution is concerned; but it will not account for the fact that hot water will retain more of most soluble substances than cold water. Heat also aids solution by creating currents in the liquid, which carry away from the solid the saturated portions of the fluid.

Common salt is not the only example that can be cited against Mr. Quackenbos's mechanical theory of solution. Chlorate of soda is precisely similar, and of nearly the same solubility, as water takes up 35

per cent. of its weight. Sulphate of soda, or Glauber's salts, is more singular still: as the temperature of the solvent water rises from 32 degrees, it dissolves more of the salt till it passes 91 degrees: then as the water grows hotter, the less of the salt will it dissolve, until the temperature is about 170°, at which degree the solvent power is the same as at 88°; and any further increase of temperature produces no effect either way. Lime is more soluble in cold water than in hot; any assumed quantity of water will dissolve about twice as much lime when ice-cold as when boiling-hot. But if sugar and lime are digested together, a much larger share of lime is taken up: not because the lime is more soluble then, but because the lime and sugar form a compound which is more soluble than lime alone. But this compound, most soluble at moderate temperatures, is insoluble in boiling water.

These examples show what every chemist knows, how impossible it is to explain solution on a mechanical hypothesis, as attempted by Mr. Quackenbos. And our exposition of these errors of P. and Q. ought to show all teachers how little they can rely upon their text-books or upon themselves when the path of plain fact is deserted for the cloud-land of hypothesis.

U. U.

S T E E L P E N S .

[THE following article we cut from the *Boston Christian Freeman*, of October 4. It is from the pen of Dr. J. V. C. Smith, lately Mayor Boston; and we have ocular evidence in the shape of a letter written some six or seven years since, which looks as if it were written with a stick, or at least with the stub of a quill, that he practices what he preaches — abstinence from steel pens.—B.]

ONE of your correspondents, a few weeks since, closed his communication with *I abominate steel pens*. He is a sensible man, and two circumstances confirm me in that opinion, viz: because he prays for a return to goose-quills, and takes your excellent paper.

Since the general introduction of steel pens poor penmanship has multiplied. If you compare the chirography of the old writers of one hundred years ago, for example, in the various record-offices of Boston, or the towns of New England, the agreeable fact is incontrovertibly established that the people at that remote period wrote a plainer and far more easy hand to read than the people of our enlightened

age. Now, sir, steel pens are chargeable with a part of the difficulty. But that is not all: a paragraph ran through the press a few weeks ago with an account like this, that the Rev. Dr. Walker, President at Harvard College, had a lame arm in consequence of using one of these modern abominations—a thousand times inferior to quills.

Were your humble servant a learned professor of philosophy, accompanying this communication would be a prodigiously-long dissertation on electricity; in which the attempt would be made to show how one habitually using a steel pen, as a doctor of divinity or any other studious doctor would naturally make the ink flow, might have the electrical condition of his body disturbed and poured out at the nib of a steel pen. In that case, lameness of the arm would follow, to say nothing about the draughts made directly upon the brain through the telegraphic apparatus packed in the muscles between one's head and fingers.

Possibly, Mr. Editor, much of the rapid matter of the modern press may be due to enfeebled brains, exhausted of their ordinary quantum of literary energy by being drawn off through steel pens. Something has weakened a good many noddles. Who ever heard of a great poet who wrote with a steel pen? Where is the historian who has sent a volume into the world in any other way than by a quill? A great somebody, for the life of me I can n't recollect who it was, positively wrote an ode to his gray goose-quill. Does any body in these last days of good, plain letter-writing sing pæans to steel pens? No, sir.

Well, to proceed, a few years since I was in the city of Birmingham, and, among other curious and extraordinary manufacturing establishments, was one for making steel pens. The machinery was beautiful, working as though it had an interior spirit of intelligence. A methodical description of the establishment would excite your surprise, especially that part of it which would include six hundred pretty, tidily-dressed English girls. They really constituted an interesting feature in the multiplied operations of that pen-making mill. How many men and boys were also engaged in the heavy manipulations of rolling bars of steel into thin ribbons, from which a flat piece was struck out by a die, afterward to be rolled into a cylinder by the female laborers, is beyond my ken. They informed me that in that particular Birmingham factory ten pens were made annually for every human being on the globe! The population supposed to be—ever so many millions, some idea of the activity of pen-makers may be imagined. Yet in that same city there are several other pen-factories, immensely large, besides those in other parts of the kingdom. Then there are those of France, and lastly those of Germany, all turning out pens faster than a watch ticks.

Since all the inhabitants of the globe do not use steel pens, of which your humble correspondent who is writing this familiar article is one, I asked the gentleman who took me over the premises about the demand for them. To my horror, he said it was on the increase. Consequently, farewell to legible writing for the next two hundred years. "Well, sir," said I, "where do they all go; and what becomes of them?" He shook his head; which was as much as to say it is a mooted point, as it is in regard to pins. What becomes of them?

Do n't you see, my friend, what a capital text, as you of the cloth would call it, for a curious dissertation on the marvelous operations in Nature's laboratory for carrying brass pins through the medium of the atmosphere and depositing their decomposed elements in fitting localities, to be again dug up in after ages, and, perhaps, turned once more into the form of pens!

Present my thanks, if you please, to the man who despises steel pens. Were he up for Governor or Mayor, he might count upon one vote. Those who advocate *free ferries* and old-fashioned *goose-quills* are my admiration.

Sir, yours,

J. V. C. S.

READING AND STUDY OF THE SCRIPTURES.

UNDER this title we find in *Brownson's Quarterly Review* for October a very interesting and instructive article, portions of which have such a relation to questions agitated in educational circles, and other portions have such value as literary criticisms, that we shall enrich our pages with several extracts. Dr. Brownson is in the minds of many persons an erratic genius whose chief notoriety is derived from his running through so many forms of opinion and so many church-relations, and who has ended a career of radicalism by putting on handcuffs and sealing his lips to all utterance of independent and manly sentiment, finding a prison-home in the Catholic Church. Never was a greater mistake: those who read frequently Dr. Brownson's writings know him to be a scholar of extensive attainments, an acute reasoner, a clear-sighted philosopher, a writer of great power, and above all a calm, earnest, truthful and independent man. We never read his works without both profit and pleasure, whether we are able to agree with him in opinion or not. Since he has been publishing his review as a Catholic review, we have not often seen it, not

having any special leaning toward that side in theology and polity. But we know the man to be worthy of respect and honor. We say these introductory words simply to disabuse the minds of any who may have been infected by the erroneous representations of him which once were common in our newspapers, and to bring our extracts favorably before our readers.

The article in the *Review* is a notice of a French critical work upon the Scriptures. Brownson laments the backwardness of Catholic scholars and theologians in the departments of biblical learning and investigation, and yields the preëminence to Protestant scholars. He thinks, however, that the learned men of his own Church are pressing forward to equal or greater eminence. He then urges the importance of the study of the Bible, and affirms that the doctrine of the Church with regard to the Scriptures has been misunderstood; he thinks, too, that opposition to Protestantism has in this respect had a bad influence upon the Catholics themselves. He thinks the vigor of the piety of the Church has suffered in consequence. The Fathers studied the Scriptures, and were the strong men; the Doctors studied and epitomized the Fathers; the Theologians gave compendiums of the Doctors; and modern Professors do but give compendiums of these compends, "and have fallen as low as possible without falling into nothing". "The remedy for the evil, in our judgment, is in returning anew to the study of the Scriptures themselves, and in drawing new vigor from their inspired pages. The words of man, however true and noble, can never be made to equal the words of God." "Let us then go back to the Scriptures, study them as did the Fathers, at least as did the great mediæval Doctors. Let us take in the sublime instruction as it was dictated by the Holy Ghost, and in language more beautiful and sublime than ever did, or ever could, originate with uninspired men."

The reviewer next passes to consider the English versions of the Scriptures; and it is because we wish his testimony to the value of familiarity with the Scriptures even as a mere means of culture, that we call attention to these paragraphs. For our own part, even if we did not believe the Scriptures to be the treasure-house in which are stored words of divine revelation, we should urge the value of knowledge of them as preëminently the English classic volume: how much more, then, when we regard not merely their form but their substance.

"What we in the English-speaking world most want is a good, faithful, and elegant Translation of the Scriptures. To no mere English reader will the Latinized language of our Douay Version ever be at-

tractive, especially if he has been early accustomed to read the Scriptures in the Version made by order of James I of England."

"We have heretofore expressed our opinion that, in any attempt at a retranslation of the Scriptures into English for Catholics, King James's Version should be taken as the basis, correcting it according to the readings of the Vulgate, and avoiding its mistranslations and its few grammatical and literary errors. Never was our language in so good a state for the translation of the Scriptures as it was at the time when that Translation was made. It had then a majestic simplicity, a naturalness, an ease, grace, and vigor, which it has been gradually losing since, and which, if not wholly lost, we owe to the influence of that Translation together with the Book of Common Prayer."

"No Translation of the Scriptures into the English of our best writers at the present day could be endured by any reader of taste and judgment. Every day does our language depart more and more from the grandeur, strength, and simplicity, which marked it in the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth; and proves very clearly that the reading of the Scriptures, at least in the English version, is growing less and less common, or that scholars who have never familiarized themselves with that version, and formed their taste by its study, have gained the mastery in our modern literary world. Say what we will, since the time of Burke, the Celtic genius, aided by French influence, has been triumphing over the old Anglo-Saxon; and pompousness of diction, and diffuseness of style, have taken the place of terseness and simplicity. These facts render it impracticable for even our best scholars to produce a new translation of the Scriptures that could equal, in literary merit, the Protestant Version.

"It is true, the version called the 'Douay Bible' was made and published before that of the translators designated by King James,—the New Testament, at Rheims, in 1582, and the Old Testament, at Douay, in 1609; but it was made under great disadvantages, by Englishmen exiled from their own country, living, and in part educated, abroad, and habitually speaking a foreign language. They were learned men; but they had, to a great extent, lost the genius and idioms of their own language, and evidently were more familiar with Latin and French than with their mother tongue. Such men could not produce a model translation; nor could we, as English scholars, wish the best translation they could produce to be the model or standard to which our language should be obliged to conform. . . . In literary merit it can in no respect compare with the Protestant Version; compared with that, it is weak, tasteless, and inharmonious. We might prove this by illustrations taken any where; but take, as it first

occurs to us, the first verse of the first Psalm. In the Douay Version it reads: 'Blessed is the man who hath not walked in the counsel of the ungodly, nor stood in the way of sinners, nor sat in the chair of pestilence.' In the Protestant Version it reads: 'Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the ungodly, nor standeth in the way of sinners, nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful.' In this last version the parallelism of the Hebrew is better preserved, and the moral idea is carried out without change or interruption. But in the first the moral continuity is broken, and there is a sudden transition from the moral to the physical order, by substituting 'the chair of pestilence' for 'the seat of the scornful', which is not only better English, but a more faithful rendering of the original. Take another illustration, from the payer of Habakkuk. In the Douay Version it reads: 'O Lord, I have heard thy hearing, and was afraid. O Lord, thy work, in the midst of the years, bring it to life. In the midst of the years thou shalt make it known: when thou art angry, thou wilt remember mercy. God will come from the South, and the Holy One from Mount Pharan. His glory covered the heavens, and the earth is full of his praise. His brightness shall be as the light: horns are in his hands. There is his strength hid: death shall go before his face. And the devil shall go forth from his feet.' The Protestant Translation reads: 'O Lord, I have heard thy speech, and was afraid: O Lord, revive thy work in the midst of the years, in the midst of the years make known; in wrath remember mercy. God came from Teman, and the Holy One from mount Paran. Selah. His glory covered the heavens, and the earth was full of his praise. And his brightness was as the light; he had horns coming out of his hand: and there was the hiding of power. Before him went the pestilence, and burning coals went forth at his feet.'"

"There is no question as to which of these two translations is the most elegant and genuinely English; but a better translation than either is, perhaps, the following, from Dr. Noyes, excepting that we prefer the word 'Lord' to the word 'Jehovah':

"O Jehovah, I have heard thy words, and tremble.
 O Jehovah, revive thy work in the midst of the years,
 In the midst of the years make it known,
 In wrath remember mercy!
 God cometh from Teman,
 And the Holy One from mount Paran;
 His glory covereth the heavens,
 And the earth is full of his praise.
 His brightness is as the light;
 Rays stream forth from his hand,

And there is the hiding-place of his power.
 Before him goeth the pestilence,
 And the plague followeth his steps.'

"'Rays stream forth from his hands' is better either than '*horns* are in his hands', or 'he had *horns* coming out of his hand'; yet the word *stream* is, perhaps, too modern, and we should, perhaps, prefer the rendering suggested in a Note to the Douay Bible, 'beams of light came forth from his hand'. The great fault of Dr. Noyes's Translation is in his too wide departure from the phraseology of the Protestant Version, and the too modern cast which he gives to his language."

Dr. Brownson next remarks upon some special differences between the Douay Version and King James's. He tells us that Abp. Kenrick in revising the Douay has substituted *repent* for *do penance* in Matt. iii: 2, etc., as a truer rendering of the *agite pœnitentiam* of the Vulgate, the phrase *do penance* having a certain technical meaning. He thinks it desirable that in the language of religion there should be no greater difference between Catholics and Protestants than is necessary.

The following is the closing paragraph of his article; and upon it the *Independent* remarks, "It may prove that Dr. Brownson has hit upon the very expedient that shall solve the vexed question of the use of the Bible in the Public Schools. His spirit of candor in this matter should be reciprocated by Protestants."

"We have no intention, in any thing we have said, to derogate from the authority of the Latin Vulgate. That text, corrected or amended according to the most authentic copies, is authoritative for all Catholics, and is, according to the judgment of the most eminent critics, upon the whole, the nearest approach to the exact reading of the original Scriptures which is now possible. It is, and must be, for Catholics, authority in all doctrinal discussions. We have not been speaking of it, but of an English translation, which may be read by English readers with pleasure and profit; but not of a translation that is ever to supersede for the theologian the Vulgate, or to be clothed with authority in controversies. Our simple suggestion is, that such translation should be made on the basis of the Protestant Version, but conforming to the readings of the Vulgate where they differ from those of the received Greek and Hebrew texts. Such a translation, we think, would gradually come into general use, and ultimately supplant, in the English-speaking world, the Protestant Version now in use. It would quietly settle the dispute between Catholics and Protestants as to the use of the Scriptures in the Public Schools, remove a great ob-

jection which Catholics now have to those schools, and go far to relieve us from the necessity we are now under of establishing schools for ourselves. But, however this may be, we can not close these desultory remarks without urging upon all Catholics the most attentive and assiduous study of the Holy Scriptures, as the best means of enlightening and confirming their faith, of elevating their devotion, of purifying and strengthening their piety, and giving robustness and vigor to their religious life."

We can not but regret that some cause — what cause we can not assert, but we think it is sectarianism in teachers and in the community, giving rise to a mutual jealousy — has prevented that free use of the Bible in schools which we remember as existing thirty years ago. If teachers knew better the proper limits of attachment to their own peculiar views, and would assume only common grounds, perhaps the old freedom might return.

EDITOR.

CLUB EXERCISES.

BY DR. LEWIS, M.D.

THE forty-six exercises with clubs used in my gymnasium constitute a very complete system of training with this favorite means of muscle-culture.

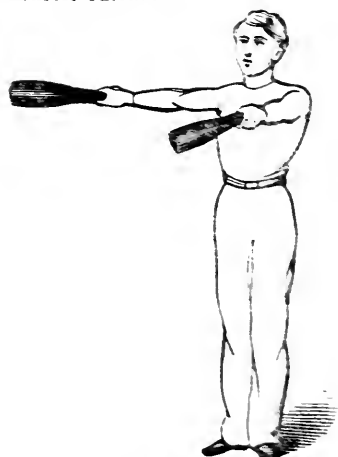


Fig. 1.

The club for adults, if made of beech, birch, or maple, should be about eighteen inches long, and three-and-a-half in diameter. The handle should be of a size convenient to the hand, with a knob at the end to keep the hand from sliding off.

No. 1. The clubs hang at the sides, each hand grasping firmly, being careful not to push the index finger toward the body of the club, but keep it close with the rest of the hand. First raise the right arm as the left is represented in Fig. 1 five times. Same with the left. Then

alternately and simultaneously, each five times.

No. 2. Raise the right hand exactly as it is represented in Fig. 1. Left the same. Alternately and simultaneously.

Each and all, five times, being careful not to bend the elbows or wrists. This last point is very important. In every exercise be careful not to bend the wrist or elbow, except in those which distinctly require that they should be bent. I have more trouble with my pupils in regard to this bending the wrist in the club exercises than in any other matter in an entire course of gymnastic training.

No. 3. Holding the right hand as the left is represented in Fig. 1, carry it directly upward till it is exactly perpendicular, five times.

Let me say, in brief, that every thing in this club-series is done FIVE TIMES, unless otherwise ordered.

Left hand the same. Alternately and simultaneously. The alternate part is represented in Fig. 2.

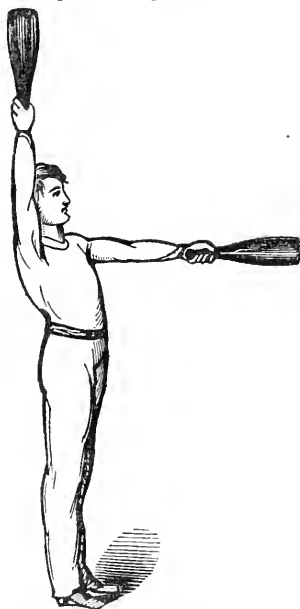


Fig. 2.

ternately and simultaneously.

No. 8. Perform the right-hand exercise of No. 3 and the left of No. 2, alternately and simultaneously.

No. 9. The right of No. 4 and the left of No. 3, alternately and simultaneously.

No. 10. The right of No. 5 and the left of No. 4, alternately and simultaneously.

No. 3. Hold the right hand as it is represented in Fig. 1, and carry it up sidewise until it is exactly perpendicular over the shoulder.

Left arm the same. Alternately and simultaneously.

No. 5. Letting the right club hang down by the right leg, carry it directly upward in front until perpendicular over the shoulder.

Left club the same. Alternately and simultaneously.

No. 6. Letting the right club hang by the leg, carry it directly upward at the side until it is perpendicular over the shoulder.

Left club the same. Alternately and simultaneously.

No. 7. Perform the right-hand exercise of No. 2 and the left of No. 1, al-

No. 11. The right of No. 6 and the left of No. 5, alternately and simultaneously.

No. 12. Hold the two clubs as the left is represented in Fig. 2. Without moving the arms, bring the right club over, so that it will lie on the arm. As it is carried back, bring over the left one. When you have alternated five times, then perform the same simultaneously.

No. 13. Hold the arms horizontal at the sides, and do the same as in No. 12.

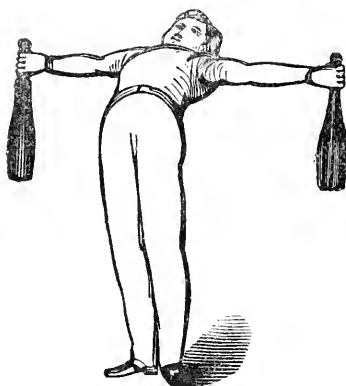


Fig. 3.

No. 14. Holding the two arms horizontal in front, hold the clubs perpendicular. Now let the clubs fall sidewise, both to the right, until they are horizontal; then to the left, and so alternate five times. Now let them fall toward each other, then from each other, and so alternate five times.

No. 15. Hold the arms horizontal at the sides, and do the same as in No. 14.

No. 16. Beginning as in No. 13, carry the arms (keeping them horizontal, and not bending the elbows) directly apart from each other, and so around, backward as far as your shoulders will allow. Now bring the farther end of the clubs together on the back of the neck. Carry them out again at the sides, holding the clubs perpendicular. Now bring the farther ends of the clubs together close to the nose. Carry out sidewise again. Let them fall on the arms, not bending the elbows. Now up perpendicular again. Then let them fall backward, as represented in Fig. 3.

Now bring them over in front, letting them fall perpendicular. And so backward and forward ten times, being *careful not* to let the arms bend or change their place.

No. 17. Hold the clubs as represented in Fig. 4.

Throw them directly upward as far as you can reach, and let them fall on the back, then again in front, and so alternate twenty times.

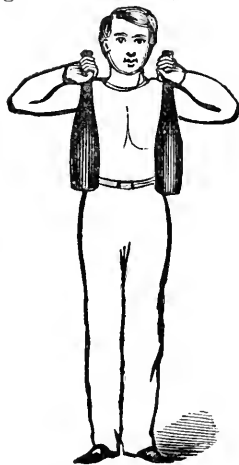


Fig. 4.

No. 18. Hold the clubs as represented in Fig. 4, except they should be the other end up. Push the right one directly off the shoulder backward, and bringing it down by the side, raise it until it is horizontal in front. Now while this one is returning in the same track to the place of beginning, let the left one perform the same journey. And so alternate ten times.

This one will be difficult to learn, but a favorite when completely conquered.

No. 19. Beginning as in No. 16, thrust them up and out sidewise, as in Fig. 5, and bring them down close to the legs, as shown in the dotted line, and then carry them round on the back, letting them fall down on the back as far as possible, and bring them to the place of beginning. Thrust them out the other way, and swing them the opposite way. So continue ten times.

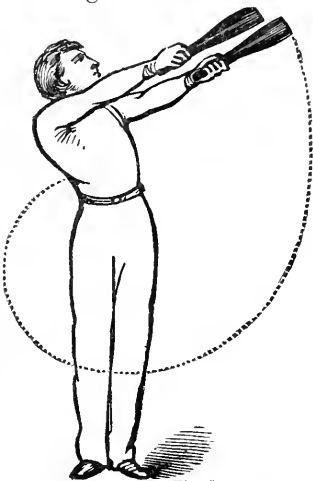


Fig. 5.

No. 20. Hold the clubs as represented in Fig. 6, one exactly in front and the other exactly behind, and carry them directly upward, letting them just touch as they pass each other over the head, and then letting them fall down horizontal, so that they are exactly reversed. Continue the same ten times.

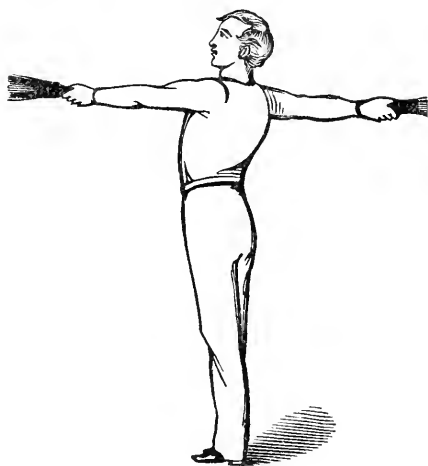


Fig. 6.

No. 21. Hold the body exactly as represented in Fig. 7, and reverse the clubs ten times, *being careful* not to allow the wrists or elbows to bend. Each time as you carry the club behind, it will lop down, forming an angle with the arm, unless great care be exercised.

No. 22. Holding the right club as represented in Fig. 2, and letting the left hang by the side, whirl the right slowly, keeping the

elbow and wrist quite stiff (as in nearly all the other exercises), and make a perfect circle with the farther end of the club. Then the same with the left. Alternately and simultaneously. The whirling in all the above is forward.

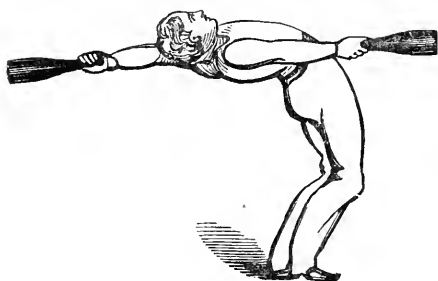


Fig. 7.

Now go over the same, whirling the club backward. Then whirl, with the same changes, in front of the body, and lastly behind the back.

These twenty-two club-exercises, which I name my 'First Series of Exercises with Clubs', will give great satisfaction and enduring interest to all who are interested in fine arms, shoulders, back, and chest.

"AND THEY TOOK AWAY THE SCAFFOLDING."

At length the work was finished, and the building stood alone ;
 A noble-looking edifice, with walls of solid stone.
 Full many days had come and gone, and flowers had bloomed to fade,
 Since first they gathered there to see its firm foundation laid.
 And steadily, though slowly, the stately structure rose,
 While faithfully the workmen toiled from dawn till daylight's close.
 They stood upon the scaffolding and wrought with vigorous hand,
 To execute the fair design the architect had planned.
 And for themselves they sought to rear a monument of skill,
 That yet should last when each strong arm grew powerless and still.
 And now the outward form complete, henceforth they must begin
 To finish all the spacious rooms and decorate within ;
 And while the slow-declining sun still lent a parting ray,
 Down from the massive walls they took the scaffolding away.

Tell me, are there not some structures, though unseen by human eye,
 Slowly rising, rising round us, as the days and weeks go by ?
 Buildings like the rare and costly temples of the sacred word,
 Where no noise of busy hammers, where no jarring sound is heard ?
 See the gentle mother kneeling by her softly-slumbering child !
 Hear the fervent prayer ascending to the Pure and Undeiled !
 As she pleads for heavenly guidance, and for wisdom to control
 Every step in the uprearing of that temple of the soul.

See the kindly warning given and the mild reproving eye
 Shield him from the power of evil when temptations linger nigh.
 All unwearied, still she labors on the scaffolding of youth,
 Ever turning for instruction to the Book of Holy Truth.
 But the years are gliding onward, and the hour at length has come
 When the boy, now grown to manhood, leaves his fondly-cherished home,
 Goes to meet the world's caresses, or perchance its darkest frown;
 But alone he now must meet it, for his scaffolding is down.

Tell me, do we idly loiter? is there one who does not view
 Some great work to be accomplished, something he must be and do?
 Be our life-cup dregged with sorrow, let it flash with joy and mirth,
 We are all but fellow workmen on the scaffolding of earth.
 He who planned this glorious system gave to each a mission high,
 And we can not cease from building our own mansions for the sky.
 Build we on the Rock of Ages? or upon the treacherous sand?
 While eternity's vast ocean rolls and thunders on the strand,
 When the swift-advancing billows rise and sweep above us all,
 Will our walls remain unshaken? will our trusted mansions fall?
 If we toil as earnest laborers, then our works can never die,—
 We shall rear a shining temple, for yon City, fair and high;
 We shall wear a spotless garment, and a never-fading crown,
 When our work on earth is ended, and our scaffolding is down.

Chicago Teacher.

SCHOOL EXERCISES.

QUESTIONS USED AT THE ANNUAL EXAMINATION OF THE MASTERS' DIVISIONS, CHICAGO,
 JUNE 18, 1861. FIRST GRADE.

ARITHMETIC.—*Fifty minutes allowed for this Exercise.*—1. Define notation and numeration.

2. Add the following numbers: Three hundred and one millions and ten; one billion, one hundred thousand and one; ten millions, ten thousand and ten; ten billions and one hundred millions; one billion, one thousand and one hundred.

3. Give the rule for contractions in multiplication, when the multiplier is a composite number; and illustrate by an example.

4. Divide one hundred and ten millions, one thousand, one hundred and ten, by eleven millions, one thousand, one hundred and eleven.

5. Define denominate numbers, and give examples.

6. Reduce £18 7s. 8d. and 2 far. to farthings. Prove the work.

7. For what is cubic measure used? For what is Troy weight used?

8. What are the prime factors of 7684?

9. Reduce the fractions $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{5}{12}$, $\frac{7}{18}$ and $\frac{11}{24}$ to their least common denominator.

10. Divide .0101 by .001.

GRAMMAR.—*Thirty-five minutes allowed for this Exercise.*

1. Define a consonant.

2. Write five abstract nouns.

3. Write ten pronominal adjectives.

4. When is the pronoun *thou* employed in preference to *you*?

5. What are the respective uses of *who*, *which*, and *that*?

6. Write a sentence containing a compound relative pronoun, and underscore the pronoun.

7. Give a synopsis of the verb *hear*, used interrogatively, in the indicative mode.

8. What are the principal parts of the verb *overflow*?

9. Write a sentence containing an adverb in the comparative degree, and underscore the adverb.

10. Name the different ways in which a grammatical predicate may be modified, and give an example of each.

GEOGRAPHY.—*Thirty-five minutes allowed for this Exercise.*

1. What can you say of the motions of the earth?

2. Name the principal animals of each of the different zones.

3. Name and describe the different forms of government.

4. What does the great central plain of the United States embrace? Describe it.

5. Climate of the Pacific Coast of the United States.

6. Name in order five cities and towns on the Ohio river, commencing at its source.

7. In what direction is Pensacola from Washington?

8. Newfoundland — its situation, surface, capital, climate, and productions.

9. Draw an outline of the Mediterranean Sea, with its gulfs, bays, and straits.

10. Name the political divisions of Italy.

SPELLING.—Brilliant. Hideous. Tangible. Prudential. Attorney. Exaggerate. Piecemeal. Grievous. Sate. Recumbent.

PUNCTUATION.—NUMBER V.

IN this my final article, we should have much ground to go over if I were attempting a formal treatise upon the subject; but it has been my object simply to suggest the fundamental principle of all punctuation, and to indicate the general rules for the use of points. Whoever fixes these firmly in mind can then more easily and profitably extend his acquaintance with the subject by the investigation of exceptions, and special cases.

The subject of Punctuation properly includes the consideration of the rules for the use of capitals, large and small; italics; marks of reference, of ellipsis, of composition or division of words; and of quotation: in short, it should include the consideration of all marks used in writing and in printing, except the choice of letters in spelling. I shall in this paper consider only the use of the Eroteme, the Ecphoneme, the Dash, the Parenthetic Curves, and the Brackets. I like Goold Brown's names for the characters ? and !, and favor the introduction of them in place of the old names, 'interrogation point' and 'exclamation point'. And in this article I shall borrow largely from two gentlemen who have written wisely and well upon the subject, Mandeville and Mulligan.

THE EROTEME.—The eroteme is put at the close of a direct question, whether it requires an answer or is put in an interrogative form for emphasis only. In such cases it occupies the place which a period would fill if the sentence were assertive. It may also be used where the comma, semicolon, or colon would be proper if the sentence were assertive: but in such cases the several elements must be to such a degree separable from each other that each can be made a question. I give examples from Dr. Mandeville:

1. How shall a man obtain the kingdom of God? By impiety? theft? murder? adultery?
2. Will the Lord cast off for ever? and will he be favorable no more?
3. Doth his promise fail for evermore? hath God forgotten to be gracious? hath he in anger shut up his tender mercies?
4. Canst thou draw out the leviathan with a hook? or his tongue with a cord which thou lettest down?

Dr. Mandeville says of these that the interrogation points at the ends of the examples and that after 'God' in the first, represent periods; that in the middle of No. 3, the colon; those in the middles of

Nos. 2 and 4, the semicolon; and those in No. 1 after 'impiety', 'theft', and 'murder', commas. In illustration, let us change No. 1 to an assertive form, supplying what is omitted. 'A man will in some way obtain the kingdom of God. [He will obtain it] by impiety, theft, murder, adultery.' We see how the eroteme is said to represent, or take the place of, other points. This view of the matter is not of theoretic value only: it enables us to decide whether the word following the eroteme should begin with a capital or not: for such decision we need only settle the question what point is replaced by the eroteme.

There are three errors into which one may fall respecting this point. First, he may fail to use it where it should be used, substituting dashes or commas for it. Wilson gives this example of such error: "What is civilization — where is it — what does it consist in — by what is it excluded — where does it commence — where does it end — how is it defined — in short, what does it mean?" An eroteme should supplant each dash, and each question should begin with a capital. Second, he may be disposed to use it after what is no question in fact, because it seems such: thus, for example: "He asked me when I would go?" Now here is no question at all, as we see when we take the supposed interrogation by itself: 'when I would go'; every one sees that that is no question. "He asked me, 'When will you go?'" Here is a real question, and I put an eroteme after it. Third, he may use the eroteme when the ecphoneme should be used, the apparent question being an expression of emotion, to which no answer is expected. It may some times be difficult to distinguish the cases in which one or the other should be used; but when one is pointing his own writing, he can not have need to hesitate. Briefly, an exclamatory interrogation, in which the idea of inquiry predominates, takes the eroteme: an interrogative exclamation, in which the emotion predominates, takes the ecphoneme. Take, for instance, Rev. vi, 10: "And they cried with a loud voice, saying, 'How long, O Lord, holy and true, dost thou not judge and avenge our blood on them that dwell on the earth?'" All texts and versions that I have, including the Douay Bible and Sawyer's Version, the Greek text, and versions in six other languages, give this example with an eroteme, showing that to those who pointed the texts the inquiry seemed predominant; but to me it seems an impassioned exclamation in interrogative form, requiring the ecphoneme.

THE ECAPHONEME, like the eroteme, represents either of the four principal points, and is put after exclamatory sentences or expressions,

after interjections or clauses or phrases containing them, and after terms of address which are emphatic with emotion. The principal errors to which an inexperienced punctuist is liable respecting this point are the use of an interrogation point in place of it as already spoken of; and the use of the ephomene in trivial sentences. It does not give force to a composition to sprinkle it with this mark.

Should it follow an interjection immediately, or be put at the end of the clause or phrase to which the interjection is attached? Generally the latter. "Alas, my noble boy, that thou shouldst die!" This is better than "Alas! my noble boy! that thou shouldst die!"

THE PARENTHETIC CURVES.—These curves are used to indicate a clause or phrase not essential to the structure of the main sentence, and which is so far extraneous to it that it breaks its unity. There are often in a structure clauses or phrases which are more or less parenthetical; but these are not inclosed within the curves unless they break its unity so much as to need some indication of that fact. When a point is necessary where the clause is thrown in, and no different point is needed within the curves, the necessary point is put by most printers after the last curve; Brown, however, would give a different rule. "We have, he believes (but he is in error), a full supply." Brown would put a comma after *believes* and another immediately after *error*.

BRACKETS [] are principally used to mark an interpolation in a quotation, whether it is direct or indirect. For example: "His translation of the sentence is this: 'Good sense [*sapere* in the original] is the first principle and the parent-source of good writing'."

THE DASH.—This much-abused mark was not originally a mark significant of grammatical structure: its first use seems to have been to denote a rhetorical pause—a suspension, not of sense, but of utterance, which generally denoted, indeed, a sudden turn in the thought. "Men will wrangle for religion, write for it, fight for it, die for it, any thing but—live for it." Here the dash does not mark any peculiarity of grammatical structure, but mere delivery adopted to give point to the antithesis. The next use which has been recognized as legitimate is to indicate a sudden break in the construction, and a sudden transition of thought. "When he opened the box, he found—but I shall not yet say what he found." "Methought I was—there is no man can tell what. Methought I was, and methought I had—but man is but a patched fool if he will offer to say what methought I had." (*Midsummer-Night's Dream*.)

Another use is thus set forth by Mulligan. "The dash has come within the last twenty or thirty years to be much used to indicate a certain class of parenthetic remarks, viz: those which present a thought in a new dress, or in a new point of view to exhibit it with greater clearness. Such expressions may be regarded as substitutes offered for that which precedes the dash. Some times a comma is used, before the dash thus employed, some times not. . . . The construction of the member which follows the dash must be carefully adjusted to the construction of that which precedes. When the dash alone is used, if the parenthetic or substituted or amended expression does not close the construction (or, at least, affect, equally with what precedes, the whole construction following), another dash must be used after it." He gives examples as follows: "I may be censured—perhaps I may be laughed at, for having said so much against the colon and semicolon." The expression immediately after the dash is an amendment of the previous one, and is not followed by a dash, "because the following part of the sentence affects or modifies the substituted and the original expression alike." "The view from this remarkable group of mountains—the most remarkable by far in the island—differs much from any other with which I am acquainted."

"Upon the whole," continues Mulligan, "we must agree with those who have asserted that the dash has been too unsparingly and too recklessly employed by many English authors. Yet we do not condemn the use of this mark judiciously employed for the purpose last mentioned. This use may be regarded as a legitimate extension of its original use to denote a *break* in the *sense*. This is a break in the construction—a sudden turn in the form of the expression. It often happens that what is thus separated by a dash might be separated by parenthetic marks. Parenthetic marks are used when a new, often an extraneous thought is thrown between the parts of a construction; and they can be used in multitudes of cases when neither commas nor dashes can with propriety be employed. We would use the parenthetic marks to indicate an interpolated thought (without confining them exclusively to this function, for they may with propriety be used to separate an explanatory expression), and the dash or dashes to indicate the introduction of another mode of expressing a preceding thought, a repetition of the same thought in a different form, or an equivalent substituted for it. The usage described, we think, agrees with the practice of the best writers of the present day."

I meant to have noticed above the improvements in the use of the eroteme and ecphoneme introduced in modern Spanish books. An inverted eroteme is placed before a question, and an inverted ecpho-

neme before an exclamation, thus: “¿Has he come yet?” “¡Ah me! the answer still is ‘no’; ¡would God he were here!” Our neighbors of the *Journal of Progress* tried to introduce a different plan, which seems to me not so good as the Spanish: they used a *reverted* eroteme before an interrogative sentence, and closed it with a period, thus: “¿Was the system of instruction better than now.”

And so, courteous reader, ends our series of articles upon punctuation. It has cost some study to prepare them, and some, doubtless, to most who have read them; but I am confident that those to whom the matter has been a maze or ‘all a muddle’ will find in our essays the leading principles of what they need to know, so presented that they can easily be remembered; and if even a few are benefited, that will be a sufficient reward to your friend

SCRIBA.

FOR THOSE WHO REMEMBER.

We sat beneath the trees that day,
So still, so bright, so calm: [leaves,
The summer south-wind, through the
Murmured a Sabbath psalm.
Rich, kingly August o’er the land
Poured like a dream of love;
The forest waved its seas of green
To azure seas above.

We saw the noonday splendors fade;
We saw the sunset’s scroll
Of purple and of crimson cloud
Along the west unroll.
We saw the gorgeous pageant pass
Through heavenly deeps afar,
And on the twilight’s dusky breast
Flash forth the evening star.

The *Friend* was there — the calm, white
So placid, pure, and pale, [brow,
Shrined in the ringlets, floating down,
A glimmering, golden veil.
And all those hours, whose spirit seemed
A deep, unuttered prayer,
We sat beneath the waving boughs,
In happy converse there.

We talked of high and holy things,
And looked, with earnest eyes,
Full on the Sphinx-like front of Life,
The voiceless mysteries.
And when the twilight shadows fell,
The night-winds murmured low,
With longing hearts we lingered still
Beside our watch-fire’s glow.

We little thought the Shadowy King
So soon the friend would call;
That from the heart, which overflowed
With priceless love for all,
The silent touch of viewless hands
Unclasped the silver strings;
That all the air was heavy there
With sweep of spirit-wings!

The golden summer days have passed;
The rain is pouring cold
Upon a long and narrow mound
New-wrought with freshest mould.
Peace to the precious dust we laid
Within that mound to rest,
In draperies of bridal white,
Fresh garlands on her breast!

And so we thank the loving God
That, ere the parting scene,
He gave us all those golden hours
Beneath the forest green;

Normal University, October, 1861.

And from that sacrament of peace
He led her by the hand,
To walk, in soft and shining light,
In His Immortal Land!

M A T H E M A T I C A L .

SOLUTIONS.—XVIII (August). We find by computation the distances traveled during the first six days to be respectively 20, 10, 15, $12\frac{1}{2}$, $13\frac{3}{4}$, $13\frac{1}{8}$ miles, or $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{5}{16}$, $\frac{1}{3}\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{2}{6}\frac{1}{4}$ of the whole distance. The last series may take the form $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{12}$, $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{24}$, $\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{48}$, $\frac{1}{3}+\frac{1}{96}$, $\frac{1}{3}-\frac{1}{192}$, from which we obtain the series $\frac{2+1}{3\times 2}$, $\frac{2^2-1}{3\times 2^2}$, $\frac{2^3+1}{3\times 2^3}$, $\frac{2^4-1}{3\times 2^4}$, $\frac{2^5+1}{3\times 2^5}$, $\frac{2^6-1}{3\times 2^6}$, where 1 in the numerator is plus or minus according as the number of terms is odd or even. Hence the n th term is $\frac{2^n\pm 1}{3\times 2^n}$ and $S = \frac{2+1}{3\times 2} + \frac{2^2-1}{3\times 2^2} + \dots + \frac{2^n\pm 1}{3\times 2^n}$, or, by adding and reducing, $S = \frac{n2^n+2^{n-1}-2^{n-2}+2^{n-3}-\dots\pm 1}{3\times 2^n}$. Multiplying both terms of the fraction by $2+1$ and reducing gives $S = \frac{(3n+1)2^n\pm 1}{9+2^n}$.

Multiplying this by 40 gives the number of miles required. L. B.

XXVI (October). $x-x^2y+x^2y^2-xy^2+y=11\dots[1]$; $x^2-x^2y+xy-xy^2+y^2=-11\dots[2]$. Subtracting [2] from [1] and changing form gives $x^2y^2+xy+(x+y)-(x+y)^2=22\dots[3]$. Adding together [1] and [2] and changing form gives $x^2y^2-2xy(x+y)+(x+y)^2-xy+(x+y)=0\dots[4]$, or $[xy-(x+y)]^2-[xy-(x+y)]=0$; from which we obtain $xy-(x+y)=\frac{1}{2}\pm\sqrt{\frac{1}{4}}=1$ or $0\dots[5]$; whence $(x+y)=xy-1\dots[6]$, $(x+y)=xy\dots[7]$. Substituting the first value of $(x+y)$ in the 3d equation and reducing, we get $xy=6$: hence $x+y=5$; and we find $x=3$ or 2 , $y=2$ or 3 . Substituting the second value of $(x+y)$ in the 3d equation, we obtain $(x+y)=xy=11$; from which, $x=\frac{11\pm\sqrt{77}}{2}$, $y=\frac{11\mp\sqrt{77}}{2}$.

L. B.

XXVII. Let x =the number of gallons in the hold at first. Since 2 of B's strokes are made in the time of 3 of A's, 4 of B's would be made in the same time as 6 of A's. But 4 of B's throw out as much water as 5 of A's: hence, in the time that A makes 6 strokes B would

throw out as much water as A would in 5 strokes. Hence, let $6y$ and $5y$ = the number of gallons thrown out per hour by A and B respectively. Now in $3\frac{3}{4}$ hours they would both throw out $3\frac{3}{4}$ times $11y$ = $41\frac{1}{4}y$ gallons, of which $41\frac{1}{4}y - x$ gallons must have leaked in during that time. This divided by $3\frac{3}{4}$ gives $11y - \frac{4x}{15}$ = leak per hour. Then $13\frac{1}{2}(11y - \frac{4x}{15}) = 146\frac{2}{3}y - 6\frac{2}{5}x$ = the number of gallons leaking in in $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and $146\frac{2}{3}y - 6\frac{2}{5}x + x = 146\frac{2}{3}y - 5\frac{2}{5}x$ = the quantity pumped out in $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours. But of this A must have pumped out $3\frac{3}{4} \times 6y - 100 = 22\frac{1}{2}y - 100$ gallons, which must have taken him $(22\frac{1}{2}y - 100) \div 6y = 3\frac{3}{4} - \frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{y}$ hours. Hence, B must have pumped for $13\frac{1}{2} - (3\frac{3}{4} - \frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{y}) = 9\frac{7}{12} + \frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{y}$ hours, and discharged $5y(9\frac{7}{12} + \frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{y}) = 47\frac{1}{12}y + 83\frac{1}{3}$ gal. which added to $22\frac{1}{2}y - 100$ gallons gives $70\frac{5}{12}y - 16\frac{2}{3}$ = whole number of gallons discharged in $13\frac{1}{2}$ hours. Equating this with the former value gives $70\frac{5}{12}y - 16\frac{2}{3} = 146\frac{2}{3}y - 5\frac{2}{5}x$, or, [1]... $5\frac{2}{5}x - 76\frac{1}{4}y = 16\frac{2}{3}$. Had A pumped as many hours as B, he would have thrown out $(9\frac{7}{12} + \frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{y}) \times 6y = 57\frac{1}{2}y + 100$. But in the same time there would have leaked in $(9\frac{7}{12} + \frac{16\frac{2}{3}}{y}) \times (11y - \frac{4x}{15}) = 105\frac{5}{12}y + 183\frac{1}{3} - \frac{23x}{9} - \frac{40x}{9y}$, to which adding x , we have the whole quantity he would have discharged; and by comparison with the value before found we have the equation $105\frac{5}{12}y + 183\frac{1}{3} - \frac{14x}{y} - \frac{40x}{9y} = 57\frac{1}{2}y + 100$, or, [2]..... $1725y^2 + 3000y - 56xy - 160x = 0$. Substituting in this equation the value of x in [1] and reducing, we find $y = 40$, $x = 1200$, and the hourly influx 120 gallons.

E. R.

PROBLEM.—XXX. Two persons start from the same point: A travels due east at the rate of 3 miles per hour; B travels due southwest, at the rate of 5 miles per hour, one hour, then he turns and travels toward the nearest point where he may fall in with A. It is required to determine the distance of this point from the starting-place. F. F.

MAKING ENVELOPES.—James G. Arnold, of Worcester (Mass.), has invented a machine which performs all the operations of making envelopes at once, taking sheets of paper of proper shape, and turning out complete envelopes in packages of twenty-five, all ready to be put in bands and boxes. The machine seems to be almost human in its intelligence.

Springfield Republican.

EDITOR'S TABLE.

THE END OF TWO YEARS.—For two years past we have had editorial charge of the *Illinois Teacher*, conducting it through the sixth and seventh volumes. During the two years immediately previous we had had no small interest in its welfare, and no light share of the work connected with it. These four years include nearly the whole time since the beginning of the commercial crisis of the fall of 1857, and include the first year of the great proslavery rebellion. They have been troublous years; and the interests of public education and of civilization itself, at last, have wavered and gone back; rather let us say, so it would appear to us, judging only by the times and not by the eternities. But they who would measure the movements of the Earth look away from it to the celestial bodies, and reckon not by miles but by diameters of spheres and of orbits. So we, looking to the central Sun of our faith, see that the four years of difficulty and the years of struggle yet to come are but parts of God's lesson to us, the wintry aphelion of the steady Providence-governed movement of society. This dreaded baptism of fiery tribulation, the outcome of which we see not yet, shall at last be a help and not a hindrance, a purification and not a destruction, to our civilization and to all its interests, and not in the lowest degree to that which our journal represents.

It is the retrospective season of the year, and, with us, the retrospective point in our work. Allow us a few words of personal bearing, with the like of which we shall not trouble you again. The work that we have done for the *Teacher* in these four years has been pleasant, though oftentimes performed under difficulties from the pressure of engagements and from ill-health. We can see where, and when, and how, it might have been better done, if we had had more strength, or more help from others: how it might have been more prompt; how the *Teacher* might have been made a truer representative of Illinois and its educational interests, *if*—ah, there is much virtue in your *if*,—if more power had dwelt in our hands.

But let these aspects of the matter pass. We wish to tell our readers what we have done for the *Teacher* during these four years; and we feel sure they will the more easily forgive any shortcomings. We were appointed by the State Teachers' Association in December, 1857, assistant to Mr. Bateman: we promised and gave constant help to Mr. Dupee; and for two years have been chief (and some times sole) Editor. During this time we have furnished contributions not inserted as editorial, with some sixteen or eighteen different signatures, beside editorial items and articles: and upon a careful estimate of our various contributions within this period, we find that they amount to more than one-fifth of the total matter in those four volumes of the *Teacher*, and probably to one-third of all the original matter; but of this we have not made special estimate. Of the en-

tire sixth volume we wrote three-eighths. Our contributions have been upon all varieties of subjects; and often a few lines (as in 'Notes and Queries') have contained the results of hours of investigation, or the summing-up of the study and observation of years. Such has been our pen-work alone, independent of the labors of selection, correspondence, and other editorial duties; at the same time we have taught one year in the Normal University, and have earned our bread by a sedentary occupation the business of which is so extensive that our postage account is always over \$200 a year. We think that, in view of these facts, none will accuse us of indifference to our work and to the great interest of education.

Two years ago, in our editorial salutory, we said, in the words of the Hebrew king, 'Let not him that girdeth on his harness boast himself as he that putteth it off.' We have made our boast: do we keep our proverb true and put off now the harness? We do. We are writing, so far as we can see, our last editorial lines. With no less interest in education than ever, we feel constrained for our own sake to withdraw from this post. Our brain-work and pen-work will probably be rarely seen in the *Teacher* hereafter. Such bread as we had we have cast upon the waters: our labor has gone into the treasury of God, where only its value can be known: we turn to other work henceforth.

But we hope that the hands that take up the labor which we drop will prove stronger than ours and carry it on better. We give place to Mr. ALEXANDER M. Gow, an able man, and one whom we are glad to have known as a friend: we bespeak for him your confidence, of which he is worthy, and your assistance and encouragement, which he will need.

We thank the many friends whose approval and good-will have sustained and cheered us: we specially acknowledge our obligations to those who have helped us by contributions to the pages of the *Teacher*; particularly we have been indebted to Messrs. James H. Blodgett, W. S. Kelly, and Samuel A. Briggs. We thank our exchanges for their favorable notices: and we will not forget to thank even the few persons who have opposed and blamed us: their just criticisms have advised us, while their unjust ones have at least given us a lesson of patience and toleration. To all, a kind FAREWELL.

SAMUEL WILLARD.

"FOR THOSE WHO REMEMBER."—In the September number of the *Teacher* we alluded in a few lines to an affliction of death in a family which was attached to the family of the Editor by closest friendship. A few days before the lady (Mrs. Ames, wife of Rev. C. G. Ames) was taken sick, our two families had a picnic excursion in Blooming Grove: it proved our last social gathering. The poet was there whose memorial offering we have transferred from the *Pantagraph* to our pages. So fall the shadows upon us: and soon only memory holds the friends we have loved.

ONE OF YOUR DUTIES.—As we have no further personal interest in the editorship of the *Teacher*, we can more easily remind teachers of one of their duties which is rarely attended to, viz: to write to and for the *Illinois Teacher*. Do n't try to be ambitious; be content to write a short, simple, plain article on a common subject, if you have not time or skill to do more — we will not say better. But do not forget nor neglect to help the editor by writing to him. Especially give him the local news of your place relating in any way to education.

THE NORTHWESTERN HOME AND SCHOOL JOURNAL has been incorporated with the *Illinois Teacher*, its editor, Mr. John F. Eberhart, taking leave of his patrons in the December number, and recommending the *Teacher* to them. There will be then next year but one educational journal in the State, and we are sure that this junction of journals ought to unite all interests in the support of the remaining one. Mr. Eberhart finds enough to occupy him in his other business, and therefore retires from editorship, which he entered about the beginning of the four years of which we speak in our valedictory. We can now enjoy our leisure, and see others drive our teams, while we both rest.

OBJECT LESSONS.—There are fashions in teaching; and just now the fashion and the passion is *Object Lessons*. But it will be found that many who talk on the subject and try to give such lessons really do not understand 'how to do it'; and there is danger that the interest may generally end in mere fashion for a while. Even the most intelligent teachers will need the benefit of the experience of others, and the suggestions of orderly methods. *Talking about objects* is not giving an *object lesson*. Mr. N. A. Calkins's book on 'Object Lessons, for Teachers and Parents', of which we gave brief notice in the August number (p. 304), will be found a very desirable book to aid those who wish to train themselves and their pupils. Its scope is the lessons for the primary school. The author invites special attention to his suggestions on elementary reading, which are indeed very good, and truly philosophical. He shows how to carry out the method toward which pictured primers are one step, and to make the child's interest in things which are familiar aid him in learning the written and printed words that represent them.

INDIANA.—Mr. M. J. Fletcher, State Superintendent in Indiana, reports thus on his official visits: "After the battle of Manassas I visited twenty counties. Every where county examiners, auditors, treasurers, trustees, directors, and teachers, were enlisting, or in some way assisting in the patriotic work of putting down this wicked rebellion. I found myself for the time being the fifth wheel of a wagon; wholly out of place so far as the work of an educator was concerned."

LIEUT. MAURY had a great reputation for scientific labors. When Virginia seceded, Maury went too, and is using his science for the purposes of the rebel army. The papers began to talk of him as a person who had made his fame by dexterous use of the investigations of others; and the *Albany Evening Journal* said that when attempt was made to use, after his secession, some instruments for observation at the National Observatory of which he had been superintendent, branches of trees were in the way and had to be cut off, proving that the instruments had not been used for years.

QUEER QUESTIONS.—Some teachers in Pennsylvania have had occasion to ask the State Superintendent some queer questions. One asks whether a teacher can prohibit tobacco-chewing in school: another, whether he can make tobacco-users bring spittoons. The Superintendent answers the latter, "No; if the Directors expressly allow tobacco-using, they must provide spittoons as furniture; otherwise the teacher should prohibit it."

PROF. LONG.—Clement Long, D.D., LL.D., died at Hanover, N. H., Oct. 14, aged nearly 55 years. He was Professor of Intellectual Philosophy in Western-Reserve College; then Professor of Theology in that college and afterward in Auburn, N. Y.; and finally Professor of Intellectual Philosophy and Political Economy in Dartmouth College, and was in that post when he died.

LORD CHATHAM AND THE DICTIONARY.—Mr. Pitt, who afterward became Lord Chatham, studied *Bailey's Dictionary*, in his day the principal one, word by word, twice through, carefully examining the import and mode of construction of each word. This he did that he might be familiar with the words of the language and use it in his writing and speaking. The effect was that his orations were remarkable for their copious vocabulary and the precision of his use of it.

TO SEE A HOLE IN YOUR HAND.—At the meeting of the Scientific Association this year Prof. Rogers read a paper on an interesting optical experiment. Take a sheet of cap or letter paper; roll it into a tube such that one end may cover the whole of the eye while the other end is not half so large; grasp the tube in one hand, and put the large end of it to the eye of the other side. Thus if you hold the tube in your right hand, put it to your left eye. Now look through the tube toward some lighted object, directing the uncovered eye as if to look at the hand. The consequence will be at once that you will see a hole in your hand, apparently right through the solid flesh. By a little management you may make the hole appear in different parts of the hand. From this and other experiments, Prof. Rogers concludes that an impression made on the retina of either eye can not of itself enable us to determine on which retina it is received, and that the visual perception belongs to the part of the optical apparatus near or within the brain, which belongs in common to both eyes. This is illustrated by Newton's experience with the spectrum of the sun, which permanently affected his right eye. He wrote to Locke that 'though he had looked at the sun with his right eye only, and not with the left, yet his fancy began to make an impression upon his left eye as well as his right; for if he shut his right eye and looked upon a book or a cloud with his left eye he could see the sun almost as plain as with the right, if he did but intend his fancy upon it a little while'.

BENZOLE is a product of the distillation of coal-tar. The coal-tar is a black foul and fetid substance, yet from it are made many useful things. Benzole is one of the many oils obtained from it by distillation. Chemically it is a carbide (or carburet of hydrogen, being) $C_{12}H_6$. As a solvent it resembles ether, alcohol, and oil of turpentine, and may for many uses be substituted for these. It is used to cleanse grease from kid gloves and silks, as well as to clean greasy wool for carpet-factories. Atmospheric air slightly warmed and passed through it takes up a portion of it, and then may be burned as an illuminating gas. By treating benzole with nitric acid a yellow oil is formed which has the odor and properties of bitter almonds, and is sold as such, and used in perfumery. By another process aniline is obtained from it, which is the base of the beautiful red and purple colors—solferino, magenta, and others—lately introduced into dyeing and printing.

Condensed from Scientific American.

COFACTOR.—The *Massachusetts Teacher* suggests the introduction of the term *cofactor*. Thus we should say 7 is a factor of 42, and in that case 6 is its *cofactor*.

ANOTHER EDUCATIONAL REGIMENT is to be attempted in Massachusetts, to be raised under the auspices of the teachers: the reports do not state that it is to be composed of teachers. Mr. Philbrick, Superintendent of Schools in Boston, is proposed for Colonel. We doubt the policy of making up regiments composed exclusively of educated men; it is better that they should leaven all the regiments than be accumulated in one. Some have strangely supposed the Illinois Normal Regiment to be made up mainly of school-teachers: our State has not so many men of that sort to spare. One company was made up chiefly of Normal students, and the regiment was officered largely by those who were or had been teachers.

LOCAL INTELLIGENCE.

KNOX COUNTY INSTITUTE met at Altona, October 24th, and held a session of three days. The exercises were of the usual character. We clip the following sentences from the report furnished us:

"It was generally admitted that Orthography ought to receive much more attention than it usually gets.

"That smaller scholars may have self-reliance in pronunciation, the Institute recommended that they read the spelling-lesson in the presence of the teacher before spelling. With the larger scholars let the teachers pronounce the words distinctly, the scholar repeating the pronunciation; then each writing the same words in a small book, prepared for that purpose, rightly dividing into syllables. After the exercise, let a committee of two, to be changed daily, take the books, correct the mistakes, and return the books next day. Spelling words by the sounds of the letter should be practiced by all scholars learning to spell. Giving proper sounds to letters was considered the necessary antecedent to good reading."

We must interpose that we do not think it best to have pupils divide words into syllables in written spelling-lessons by inserting hyphens or leaving a space. We know that we have found our pupils who were trained to do so troubled by the custom when at other writing: they were disposed to interpose hyphens or leave spaces in their ordinary writing. We then directed division into syllables to be effected thus: write the word in full, then draw light strokes through the word where you would divide it into syllables, thus, for example: distinctly. I warned them to make their letters carefully, so that they could do this well.

"As an accompanying exercise to reading, the analysis of sentences and reading by vowel sounds were recommended; also, to correct the habit of monotonous reading, the scholar should be required to relate as much as he could about the lesson in his own language. Scholars usually read too much at a lesson and with too little care. Parents often hinder the *real* progress of their children in reading by wishing them to advance too soon into higher readers."

"Mr. J. H. Knapp made remarks upon teaching object-lessons; the chief benefit in such exercises in school is to elicit thought, which, if accomplished, removes the greatest obstacle to the acquisition of useful knowledge. Many useful inventions originate from the study of objects. Necessity has been said to be the mother of invention; if necessity is the mother, thought must be the father, and the object-lesson the *grand-father*."

The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That every teacher who would honor his profession should possess a teachers' library, and consult the same as often as circumstances require.

Resolved, That we, the teachers of Knox county, regard Teachers' Institutes as powerful auxiliaries in assisting in the work of the school-room, and that teachers who keep away from them, having no good excuse, are not worthy to be employed as teachers.

Resolved, That it is the bounden duty of the Institute to obtain instructors in the different branches who will expect personally to perform the work assigned, and if necessity compels a proxy, the latter should be duly notified.

Resolved, That in accordance with the recommendations of the State Superintendent, it is the duty of the Board of Supervisors to aid the teachers of this county in building up an Institute worthy the support of the friends of common schools, by granting such a sum as shall be necessary for that purpose.

A MISSIONARY NEEDED IN MORGAN COUNTY.—A young lady who was not long since teaching school near Jacksonville—we think she was within view of its spires—told us that in a school of thirty-seven pupils she had thirty-six classes, because of the want of uniformity of books. The Directors refused to do anything to correct the evil. She tried to reach it herself by directing pupils when they were obliged to get new books to get such as others had. Some times she failed then: once she asked the child why the book whose name she had written on a card for him was not obtained: "'Cause Mr. C. had n't none; and pa had n't no 'count at t'other store."

FIRES.—By a recent fire a large share of the Illinois Conference Female College at Jacksonville was destroyed. Within a few days the fine school-house in Griggsville which was finished less than four years ago at a cost of \$12,000 was totally destroyed by fire.

BELLEVILLE.—Mr. James P. Slade has been appointed Principal of the High School and Superintendent of Schools at Belleville, where he has been teaching for several years.

NOTES AND QUERIES.

ANSWERS.—*Query* 49 (p. 334) J. W. O. quotes the phrases 'a younger sister of Virtue's' and 'it was no business of Mr. Brown', and asks whether both forms are authorized, and if so, which is preferable.

Answer. Plainly, we may say 'a younger sister of Virtue' or 'a younger sister of Virtue's'; there is a little difference in the meaning, as was shown on page 231. So we might say 'a servant of Mr. Brown', or 'a servant of Mr. Brown's'; the latter form would imply, by our usage, that Mr. Brown has other servants. The particular expression cited from the Canadian newspaper by J. W. O. raises a doubt simply because the words 'it was no business of' are so much oftener followed by *mine, yours, his, ours* and *theirs* than by any other words that we naturally expect at least a similar construction when a noun is used after *of*. While I should consider both forms allowable, I should prefer to have the word following *of* in the possessive form in this particular instance.

V. D.

Query 50 (p. 400). "What is meant by the phrase 'a Roland for an Oliver'?"

Answer. *Bailey's Dictionary* (s.v. *Oliver*) quotes the proverb 'Give him a Roland for an Oliver', and comments thereon thus: "This Proverb *in terminis* is modern, and owes its Rise to the *Cavaliers* in the Time of the *Civil Wars* in *England*, who by way of Rebuff gave the antimonarchical Party a General *Monk* for their *Oliver Cromwell*; but as to the Matter of it, it seems to proceed from the *Lex Talionis*, or Law of Retaliation, *An Eye for an Eye, and a Tooth for a Tooth*; and *Par pari retuli*, say the *Latins*'; etc. (We give Bailey's capitals and italics.)

But Mr. Bailey forgot that to make his statement consistent, as Cromwell's name was *Oliver*, Monk's should have been *Rowland*; but it really was *George*. Besides, we find evidence that the phrase was of earlier date than the Great Civil War. Halliwell cites the following from Hall (I suppose Edward Hall, 1499—1547, author of 'Chronicles'), the very spelling of which shows a date a hundred years before the civil war: "But to have a Rowland to resist an Oliver, he sent sollepne ambassadors to the kyng of Englande, offeryng hym hys doughter in marriage."

In the chivalric romances and ballads appear two great champions overpowering all others by their prowess, Oliver and Roland; of these Roland or Rowland was rather the more famous for his feats in arms. Halliwell gives a couplet from an old manuscript which can hardly be of later date than 1350-70:

"Soche strokys were never seen yn londe,
Syth Olyvere dyed and Rowlonde."

"Such strokes were never seen in the land, since Oliver died, and Rowland." Here, again, Oliver and Rowland are joined. We now see both the origin and the meaning of the proverb. To give a 'Rowland for an Oliver' is to bring in a famous champion or great power upon one side of a contest to match another upon the other side.

WILLARD.

NOTICES OF BOOKS, ETC.

SHERWOOD'S SPELLING-BOOK.

This is a little blank-book to be used for written spelling in schools. It is in quarto form, of 24 pages, looking just like a copy-book; but the pages are ruled with columns so that the number of words given out and the number missed can be readily registered. We think it exactly the thing wanted, simple, neat, convenient, and we presume it will be sold at a price as low as the blank paper. The book will contain forty-eight lessons of twenty-five words each. The directions make its use very plain.

SLATE MAP-DRAWING CARDS.

In our May number we noticed this recent invention, which consists in putting upon firm paper a slate-composition. Upon the cards before us are indelibly delineated the coast-lines of seven maps; and a hemisphere-map, with parallels and meridians only, is furnished as a part of the set: upon these eight slate-cards the pupil may, with chalk-crayon or slate-pencil, draw views, mountains, etc., and erase his marks with a sponge, thus using each card a thousand times, and repeating his lesson as often. With the slate-cards there are furnished also, for the drawing of the same maps, outlines upon paper, which the pupil may finally fill up. This seems to us an excellent and really very cheap aid to the study of Geography: the whole sixteen cards are sold for \$1.25, less than eight cents each. An equal amount of practice with any other map-cards must cost from six to ten times as much. These cards are published by Mr. Charles Scribner, 124 Grand street, New York, and are put up in a convenient pasteboard case. They can be used, of course, with any geographical text-book, or without any but an atlas. Wherever teachers have an intelligent community to deal with, they should try to introduce these economical slate map-cards.

EDUCATOR'S ASSISTANT. Tenth Edition. Chicago: George Sherwood. pp. 104. 10 cents.

Mr. Sherwood's catalogue of things useful, convenient, and necessary, continues to grow; and we presume that his establishment, his business, and his good humor, grow correspondingly. Whoso would know what he has to sell should send him

a dime for the last edition of the pamphlet named above, in return for which he will get a 'picture-book' with many dimes' worth of information.

Mr. Sherwood is now adding school-books to his previous stock. See advertisement.

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

We always take great pleasure in reading the *Scientific American*, and of course in commending it also. A new volume commences on the first of January, and it being a valuable work of reference, containing, as it does, the only official list of patent claims published in the country, every number should be preserved. The paper is published every Saturday, by the well-known patent agents, Messrs. Munn & Co., who have conducted the paper during the past sixteen years. In addition to furnishing specimen copies of the paper gratis, the publishers will send a pamphlet of advice to inventors, free of charge.

What the *Louisville Journal* says: "We do not believe that even in this age of cheap publications any work can be more reasonable than the terms of the *Scientific American* at two dollars per annum, with twenty-five per cent. discount for clubs of ten. It forms a yearly volume of 832 pages quarto, with an immense number of original engravings of patented machines, valuable inventions, and objects of scientific interest. There is not an industrial pursuit which does not receive a share of its attention. It contains official lists of patent claims, important statistics, practical receipts for useful domestic purposes, and has long stood, both in this country and Europe, as the highest authority in the mechanic arts and sciences. There is no publication more valuable to the farmer, the miller, the engineer, the iron-founder, the mechanic, or the manufacturer. We have never opened a number without learning something we never knew before, and obtaining valuable information for the benefit of our readers. The publishers, Messrs. Munn & Co., of 87 Park Row, New York, have deserved the success which they have achieved. No one should visit the city without calling at their palatial establishment, which is a museum of inventive genius, collected from the entire world. If any of our friends away off in the country do not know this work, and will take our advice, they will mail two dollars and become subscribers immediately, or by applying to the publishers they can obtain a specimen copy gratis, which will be sure to confirm the truth of our recommendation."

THE JUVENILES.—When we were young—and that was not so long ago but that we can still remember how we felt and thus sympathize with youth—we took great pleasure in our juvenile paper, the *Youth's Companion*. We do not remember any other juvenile in those days. Now there are several; and we love to commend them to teachers and parents and pupils. They give a cheap, lasting, and desirable pleasure. School-teachers should encourage their pupils to use their holiday moneys in subscribing for them. Do not be discouraged: if you get but a single subscriber in one year, you may get more the next.

We receive in exchange the following:

Merry's Museum and Woodworth's Cabinet: edited by 'Robert Merry and Hiram Hatchet'. Published by J. N. Stearns, New York. Monthly. 32 pages. \$1.00 a year.

Student and Schoolmate. Wm. T. Adams, Editor. Publishers, Galen James & Co., Boston. Monthly. 36-40 pages. \$1.00 a year.

Clark's School Visitor: a Day-school paper for Teachers and Children. Publishers, Daughaday & Hammond, Philadelphia. Large 8vo. 16 pages. Monthly. 50 cents a year.

Which is the best, do you ask? Let the children judge: the publishers will send sample copies to any who will ask for them to obtain subscribers with. If we were choosing for scholars, we think we should select the *Student and Schoolmate* for the oldest scholars that will take a juvenile, the *School Visitor* for the youngest, and *Merry's Museum* for the intermediates; and yet they will each of them interest all classes—and the family at home besides. If we suffer ourselves to see any one of them we are sure to look through it and read something before we lay it down.

EXAMINED, --- TESTED, --- APPROVED,

IN THE

PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF

NEW YORK,	PORTLAND, OREGON.	FACTORYVILLE,
BROOKLYN,	PEORIA,	TARRYTOWN,
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RECOMMENDATIONS.

The *Educational Herald* says: "We have looked over most of the Readers competing for favor; and while we find many excellences in nearly all, we are compelled to admit that this is the only series all the numbers of which are in every way adapted to the wants of public schools."

From Prof. Frederick S. Jewell, of the New-York State Normal School.

It gives me pleasure to find in the National Series of School Readers ample room for commendation. From a brief examination, I am led to believe that we have none to equal them. I hope they will prove as popular as they are excellent.

From Andrew J. Rickoff, late Superintendent of the Public Schools of Cincinnati.

I was much pleased in looking over these Readers. I can not see how the

Series could be improved, either as to authorship or style of publication. It certainly has no superior.

From W. D. Wickersham, Principal of State Model School of Pennsylvania.

We selected Parker & Watson's Pronouncing Speller, after examining a number of similar works; have used it the last three months with entire satisfaction, and consider it admirably adapted to accomplish the end for which it was designed.

HAMILTON COLLEGE, Aug. 8, 1860.

It gives me pleasure to say that Parker & Watson's National Fifth Reader has several unique features, that give it great value and attractiveness. The selections are carefully made from the entire range of British and American classics, with a brief sketch of each author selected from. It thus does the work of a biographical dictionary. The quantity of vowels and the pronunciation of words are distinctly marked in all cases where youthful readers would be in doubt. The work is handsomely printed, and well worthy of its wide popularity.

EDWARD NORTH, *Professor of Languages.*

From Moses T. Brown, Superintendent of Public Schools of Toledo, Ohio.

In regard to the Readers and Spellers, by Parker & Watson, it is sufficient to state that the different series of other authors were critically examined by our Board of Education and myself, and the decision was unanimous in favor of the National Series. Our teachers are delighted with the books, and none more so than our primary teachers. *I consider the series better adapted to our graded-school system THAN ANY OTHER NOW BEFORE THE PUBLIC.*

Rev. John M. Bonnel (one of the editors of the Educational Repository) made the following report to the Educational Institute of the Methodist Church:

Returning to the field of common orthography, I have yet to notice the spelling-books, which, for happy adaptation to general use, are decidedly the best that have met my eye. I refer to Parker & Watson's National Spellers, Elementary and Pronouncing. I had occasion to notice the latter of these books in a report that I made last year. My opinion, after another year's observation of their use, is unchanged; they are the best spelling-books published in America. One great recommendation that they possess, with me, is that they are expressly prepared for teaching spelling by writing in stead of orally. Orthography is the correct writing of words. It is only when we want to write a word that we want to know what letters and syllables compose it. The pupil that is taught to write his words correctly comes by practice to do so mechanically, unerringly, and without diverting his thoughts from his subject-matter. A spelling-book well adapted to this object is, *ipso facto*, one of the best of its kind. The compilations of Parker & Watson, in addition to this decisive excellence, are marked by the following valuable traits: 1st, a very judicious arrangement and classification of words; 2d, a good system of phonetic marks attached to letters; 3d, the pronunciation of difficult words printed in full; 4th, a correct system of syllabication. They are evidently the productions of original mental penetration and actual school-room experience. For the present, at least, they bear the palm.

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As the Publishers have claimed the superiority of these Readers and Spellers in the important elements of Pronunciation, Punctuation, Gradation, and in the range and character of their Selections, as well as Mechanical Execution, they deem it proper that these claims, in specific form, should accompany the Books sent for examination. Parties interested will find a synopsis of their distinctive features on the 5th and 6th pages of their Circular for 1861, a copy of which will be sent to any address on application. The views of the Publishers, as regards introductions, etc., will be found on the 1st page of the same.

PROSPECTUS FOR 1862.

THE ILLINOIS TEACHER--- VOLUME VIII.

THE Eighth Volume of the ILLINOIS TEACHER begins with the January number. The depressions, incident to every species of enterprise, arising from the unhappy condition of our national affairs, have borne with unusual severity upon every thing of an intellectual or literary character during the year 1861. The Periodical press has suffered very greatly from this cause, and many have been obliged to suspend their issues from a want of patronage. The beams of brighter days have not as yet dawned upon our vision, though Hope bids us be cheerful in the anticipation of a happy change from the gloom and despondency which seem every where to prevail. Shall the ILLINOIS TEACHER share the fate of others and cease to appear because there is not enterprise, enthusiasm or means enough to sustain it? Years of labor — of earnest, honest, sacrificing labor — have been necessary to put it in operation and sustain it: it has been a signal instrument in the past of accomplishing much for the cause of popular education, and now the question arises — Will the 14000 teachers of this great State suffer the only organ which represents their calling to faint, or fail perhaps, for a want of that patronage which it is their duty to bestow? This ought not, must not be. The enemies of our Government have no object of deadlier hate than the system of common schools. It is their design to shroud the minds of the masses of the people in moral and intellectual darkness. The teacher is their especial aversion. Shall we not maintain the honor of our profession, preserve our own power, exhibit our own progress, manifest our own patriotism, by making our professional organ more-efficient and more-useful than it has ever been?

There has never been a time when danger to the common-school system appeared so imminent as at the present. All the elements of opposition which have been arrayed against the schools in the past will now appear with redoubled force. Our people, unaccustomed to feel any burden of government, will anticipate the severity of taxation, and more-readily acquiesce in the apparent necessity of taking from their children the means of education. Demagogues will endeavor to stimulate the fears of the people; and unless we, the Teachers of Illinois, oppose a solid front in behalf of the rising generation, the children will be the most-serious sufferers by our national misfortunes.

We appeal to the teachers to sustain their periodical, to assist it by their means, by their influence in extending its circulation, and by their contributions to its pages.

By the arrangement of the publishers, the publication of the *Northwestern Home and School Journal* has been discontinued, and its interest and good-will have been transferred to the TEACHER. By this union of the educational influences of the State much good will be effected. It is hoped that the energetic and enterprising Commissioner of Cook county will find time to make contributions from his pen to the pages of the TEACHER.

To predict what the TEACHER will accomplish during the ensuing year would be vain; but we pledge our best efforts to promote the interests of Education in all its departments, and as far as it lies in our power to make our monthly an interesting and valuable publication to teachers of every grade, but especially the younger and more-inexperienced. In this effort we hope to be assisted by the

best teaching talent and experience in the State. We would be particularly pleased to receive the various items of local interest from teachers in every part of the State. Condensed reports of Teachers' Institutes will be especially welcome, and we hope during the year to record a brief history of every one held in the State.

ANNOUNCEMENTS, AND TERMS OF SUBSCRIPTION.

The publisher takes pleasure in announcing that the *TEACHER* during the year 1862 will be under the editorial management of Mr. ALEXANDER M. GOW, of Dixon, whose eminent qualifications, long experience, and distinguished success, have secured for him a leading position among the practical teachers of the State. Mr. Gow has in former times written valuable articles for the *TEACHER*. Mr. SAMUEL A. BRIGGS, of Chicago, will continue in the position of Associate and Mathematical Editor, in which capacity he has rendered efficient and acceptable service during the latter half of the year just closed.

After the January number, which is necessarily delayed till about the 15th, the *TEACHER* will be promptly mailed to subscribers by the first of the month for which it bears date.

The *ILLINOIS TEACHER* is the Official Organ of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and will contain frequent communications from him on matters of special interest and importance to teachers and school officers.

Each number of the *TEACHER* will contain 40 pages, exclusive of advertisements, making at the end of the year a volume of 480 pages. With the last number of the year will be sent a title-page and index for the volume.

Letters containing subscriptions, and business communications of every kind, should be addressed to N. C. NASON, PEORIA, ILLINOIS; articles for publication (except for the *Mathematical* Department), and all other communications relating exclusively to the editorial management of the *TEACHER*, to ALEX. M. GOW, DIXON, ILLINOIS; communications for the *Mathematical* Department to SAMUEL A. BRIGGS, (P.O. Box 3148) CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

TERMS OF SUBSCRIPTION.—For a single copy, One Dollar a year. Eleven copies for Ten Dollars; Twenty-three copies for Twenty Dollars, and any additional number ordered by a person who has already ordered twenty-three copies will be sent for 85 cents each. The copies ordered for a club will be addressed to the individuals composing the club, and will be sent to different post-offices, if so desired.

All subscriptions will begin with the month in which they are received, unless special instructions to the contrary are given: back numbers will always be furnished as far as possible when requested. Payment in all cases in advance.

In sending subscriptions be careful to write all names of persons and post-offices distinctly. In remitting large amounts send drafts if convenient. Fractions of a dollar may be sent in postage-stamps.

Any subscriber to the *TEACHER* can obtain any one of the Eastern \$3 Monthlies by remitting to us Two Dollars, or two or more of them for Two Dollars each.

TERMS OF ADVERTISING.

The annexed table shows the rates of advertising in the *Teacher*. Bills will be made out against yearly advertisers, and payment expected, twice a year—in the months of June and December. Advertisements inserted for parties who do not advertise with us regularly must be paid for on the expiration of the time for which they are ordered. Advertisers should in all cases state how many insertions are desired and how much space they wish to occupy; otherwise, their advertisements will be displayed according to the taste and judgment of the printers, continued till forbid, and bills be rendered accordingly. No advertisement will be counted less than $\frac{1}{4}$ page. All material alterations of standing advertisements will be charged for at the rate of \$2 per page.

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